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How to Earn the Merit Grant

H. MAJOR



PART I. THE DEPART STUDENT
FIND YOUR CHALLENGE



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HOW TO EARN THE MERIT GRANT.



HOW TO EARN THE MERIT GRANT.

AN ELEMENTARY MANUAL OF *SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND METHOD*

FOR PUPIL TEACHERS, ASSISTANT AND
HEAD TEACHERS.

COMPILED FROM NOTES OF LECTURES DELIVERED TO A CLASS
OF EX-PUPIL TEACHERS.

By H. MAJOR, B.A., B.Sc.,

INSPECTOR OF BOARD SCHOOLS, LEICESTER.

PART I.—THE INFANT SCHOOL.

LONDON : GEORGE BELL AND SONS, YORK STREET.
COVENT GARDEN.

1883.

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PREFACE.

THE author is not so vain as to think that the methods herein recommended are absolutely the best; he only recommends them as the best he knows. In cases where the teacher is doubtful of success in the methods recommended, a practical trial will, in some cases at least, bring the teacher round to the author's opinion.

Besides summarizing hints and notes for practical use, the reason and philosophy of the subject have been briefly discussed, in order that the Assistant Teachers may be prepared for the School Management Syllabus of the Teachers' Certificate Examination.

The reader will note that the author has been dogmatic in his mode of treatment;—this is because he has ventured to present himself as a teacher of young teachers, and because he believes that every instructor must be more or less dogmatic in matters concerning which he has arrived at definite opinions, as otherwise doubt engenders doubt.

While Part I. of this treatise has been specially designed for Infant Schools, the author would strongly advise the

reader also to study Part II., for older children, because of the certificate requirements.

This is the only manual yet issued that provides for the requirements of the New Code, 1883, and Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors.

SHERWOOD HOUSE, LEICESTER,
1883.

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HOW TO EARN THE MERIT GRANT.

PART I.—THE INFANT SCHOOL.



REVISED CODE, 1883.

INFANT SCHOOLS OR CLASSES.

“106. The grants to infant schools or classes are as follows :—

(a) *A fixed grant* amounting—

(i.) to 9*s.* if the scholars are taught as a separate department, under a certificated teacher of their own, in a room properly constructed and furnished for their instruction :

(ii.) to 7*s.* if the scholars are taught as a class of a school, suitably to their age, and so as not to interfere with the instruction of the older children.

(b) *A merit grant* of 2*s.*, 4*s.*, or 6*s.*, if the Inspector reports the school or class to be fair, good, or excellent, allowing for the special circumstances of the case, and having regard to the provision made for (1) suitable instruction in the elementary subjects, (2) simple lessons on objects and on the phenomena of nature and of common life, and (3) appropriate and varied occupations.



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HOW TO EARN THE MERIT GRANT.

in seeking to bring to one low level of uniform acquirement the irregular and inattentive scholars.

(c) To discourage sufficient attention being paid to the cultivation of intelligence.

(d) To ignore inventiveness and originality on the part of teachers in devising better methods of instruction.

(e) To keep the most intelligent children, for months in every school year, listlessly employed in dry mechanical tasks requiring technical accuracy, but little power of thought.

(f) To discourage teachers placed in abnormally difficult surroundings in neglected centres; and

(g) To ignore skill in administration and government, as if method were everything, and management of minor consequence.

In the Merit Clause of the Revised Code of 1883 an attempt is made, by special payment, to recognize special skill in securing good Tone and Discipline, the best methods of instruction, and the most valuable results of a teacher's labours; while strict attention is enjoined to the difficulties of special surroundings. This laudable effort will doubtless end in success, when good teachers conscientiously endeavour to second it, according as H.M.'s Inspectors are far-seeing, penetrative, skilled in their work, rigorously just, patient and careful to discriminate; or, on the other hand, in failure under young and inexperienced Inspectors, impulsive, and incapable of excluding their own "personal equation."

Success in teaching the "three R's" will be a factor present to the mind of an Inspector in coming to a decision on the Merit Grant—as this is made to partly depend on "the general quality of the work, especially in the Elementary Subjects" (Revised Code, p. 16).

"The award of the Merit Grant will be the result of several factors of judgment. The quality as well as the

numbers of passes will necessarily reveal to us the most important of the factors; but inferences derived from them alone may be modified by taking into account the skill and spirit of the teaching, the weakness of the school-room and its appliances, the accuracy and trustworthiness of the registers, the fitness of the classification in regard to age and capacity, the behaviour of the children, especially the honesty under examination, and the interest they evince in their work. The Code also allows you to make reasonable allowance for 'special circumstances.' A shifting, scattered, very poor or ignorant population; any circumstance which makes regular attendance exceptionally difficult; failure of health, or unforeseen changes among the teaching staff, will necessarily and rightly affect your judgment. It is needful, however, in all such cases, to have regard not only to the existence of special difficulties, but also to the degree of success with which those difficulties have been overcome" (Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors, 1882).

Most teachers will recognize that there may be a wide difference, even so far as the Elementary Subjects alone are concerned, between two schools securing absolutely the same percentage results. Beyond the line of a mere pass in Reading, for instance, there is a wide margin for excellence in expression, emphasis, accurate knowledge of the meanings of words and passages, correct unlaboured aspiration of the letter *h*, clear enunciation of final consonants, and the other elements that make good reading. When these excellencies are present, they will aid an Inspector in coming to a favourable decision, if otherwise doubtful, on the Merit Grant. These are evidences in the teacher of skill and painstaking not otherwise recognized by the Code; and therefore the teaching of the "three R's" is referred to in the following pages.

"One school may make a very high percentage,

and be inferior, in all that is truly educative, to another with a lower one. The highest function of a teacher is not to produce certain mechanical results, but to stimulate thought, and give an educational impulse; this cannot be done by keeping in a narrow rut, with no thought of anything but securing a certain number of passes at the end of the year. Thoughtful stimulative teaching is the surest way to produce even mechanical accuracy."—DR. KERR.

This matter is referred to also in the Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors, Merit Clause: "The full value of a school's work is not accurately measured by the results of individual examination, as tabulated in a schedule; and two schools, in which the ratio of passes attained is the same, often differ materially in the quality of these passes, and in general efficiency as places of education. It is in order that these differences may be recognized in calculating the grant, that my Lords have caused the award of a substantial part of that sum to be dependent on the estimate you form of the merit of the school as a whole."

VISITS WITHOUT NOTICE.—Under the Government regulations an "inspector may visit a public elementary school at any other time" (than the annual inspection) "without notice."

It is at such unexpected visits that schools are most likely to be found in their normal condition; and Inspectors will be largely influenced by what they then observe in forming opinions as to—

(1) "Suitable instruction in the elementary subjects;" and

(2) "Appropriate and varied occupations," in an Infant School.

(3) Tone, Discipline, and Organization.'

"I have found visits without notice of great value in aiding me to form an estimate of the general

efficiency of a school, more especially of its organization and discipline. The contrast between the appearance of the children on the day of an inspection, and on a visit without notice, should be less marked. The personal cleanliness and general neatness of the pupils are matters that lie strictly within the teacher's province, and are worthy of attention on ordinary working days as much as on the day of inspection."—MR. BARRIE.

A CHILD—PHILOSOPHY OF THE SUBJECT.

THE NATURE OF A CHILD.—A workman, to be successful in his craft, must necessarily know—

(a) The *nature* and *properties* of the materials with which he has to deal ;

(b) The best *methods* of dealing with these.

This knowledge can only be gained inductively to be of practical use, viz. by *Observation* and *Experiment*. Any other process will be empirical ; founded on quack notions rather than on logical sequence. This observation and experiment may be either that of the teacher himself, or the combined experience of others who have gone before him. But before the latter can be of real use to the individual, it must have been tested and put into practice by each one for himself.

Young teachers, who start on their career with the determination to find out for themselves the best methods of teaching, without seeking the aid to be gained from the success and failures of others, will require a longer apprenticeship than those who are willing to recognize that age and experience are potent factors in the conduct of life. Hundreds of young teachers are annually pronounced by weak Head Teachers to be totally inefficient, who, when placed under the charge of more skilled

directors, are made thoroughly skilful. There are, of course, thousands of instances, on the other hand, in which, from failure of physical stamina, of good temper and cheerfulness, lack of industry or docility, etc., it is evident that aspiring candidates have mistaken their vocation.

A trainer of domestic animals brought up to habits of obedience, makes himself intimately acquainted with their organization, aptitudes, dispositions, and capacities for instruction and education. The complex nature of a child at least requires as much, we should say vastly more, study to understand it.* In this treatise we shall consider a child as an animal, moral, and intellectual being; to a great extent the creature or creation of its surroundings; the outcome of past physical and mental influences; and the founder of a race marked by similar characteristics to those to which it has been itself subjected. We insist on the animal, as well as on the mental and moral, aspect of a child's existence, because it is only through the medium of brain and nerves, and the organs of sensation, that a child is capable of mental and moral impression and expression.

In other words the child is	{	(1) Intellect or thought	{	Acting through, or being acted upon, by a physi- cal medium.
		(2) Feeling or Emotion		
		(3) Will		

MIND AND BODY.

The intimate connection between mind and body is illustrated by the recognized fact, that unventilated domiciles, workshops, etc., predispose the sufferers to weariness and mental exhaustion. It is sometimes asserted by theorists that "street Arabs," and children

* "Is it that the unfolding of a human being in body and mind, is so comparatively easy a process, that any one may superintend and regulate it with no preparation whatever?"—HERBERT SPENCER.

preternaturally sharp in the cunning tricks of low life, are also quick in learning. Our experience is the opposite of this; we have always found that "penny and ragged schools," where the children are ill-fed, ill-clothed, and ill-housed, are weak in intellectual grasp; and that though they may quickly learn the mechanical arts of Reading and Writing, they are dull in learning Arithmetic (the logic of schools), and the more intellectual subjects.

So far as mere weight is concerned, the brain is at the early age of infant school-life already largely developed; but the substance of it is delicate, soft, and easily injured.

The brain is acted upon from without and from within. From without it receives impressions of touch, taste, smell, hearing, sight, through the ingoing nerves. From within it is affected by the mind itself. These influences may both be too strong for the weak instrument; thus a glare of light may temporarily cause blindness; and excess of reasoning, willing, feeling, may lead to disorganization of brain tissue.

The amount and character of mental work for Infants should be carefully regulated by the teacher; and good ventilation and abundant exercise and change should be provided.

Moreover, God and Nature intend the child to be *happy*. This is the necessity and law of its existence; if not so, there is something wrong in its health or surroundings. This happiness is at once checked by rigid repression of the spontaneity which is ever seeking an outlet in shouts, laughing, talking, and muscular movement, and in the imitation of the teacher in formal work. The Senses should, therefore, be the principal avenues to knowledge in an Infant School, as in the exercise of these the child takes such fresh and unjaded delight.

A. INTELLECT OR THOUGHT.

Intellect.—Under this name we comprise those faculties, or powers, which enable the child—

- (1) To perceive the *likenesses* or *resemblances* of things;
 - (2) To recognize their *unlikeness* or *difference*;
 - (3) To retain, remember, and reproduce these likenesses and differences by the act of *Memory*.
-

The education of a child should therefore aim to teach it—

- (1) To detect likenesses, where they are not at first sight apparent. Thus in learning to *read*, the eye of the child should be trained instantaneously to recognize similar letters, syllables and words: in *Writing* the eye and hand should be trained to see, and imitate, similarities of—

Thick and thin strokes ;

Up and down strokes ;

Loops, straight lines, and curves, of like formation ;

The size and sequence of these :

and in learning *Arithmetic*, (but to a much less extent), similar processes, as of Multiplication and Addition ; Division and Subtraction ; etc.

- (2) Side by side with these likenesses,—often obscured by them to the untrained,—should be the consciousness of unlikeness or dissimilarity ; as of letters, syllables, and words in Reading and Writing ; and of apparently opposite processes in Arithmetic, as of Addition and Subtraction ; Multiplication and Division ; Involution and Evolution ; etc.

- (3) Lastly, the likenesses and differences in words and figures, must be fixed on the mind by imitation, repetition, and stimulation, etc., to strengthen the memory of them.

B. EMOTION, OR GENERAL FEELING.

Emotion, or Feeling.—From the moment of birth to that of death, while the intellectual faculties are being at the same time employed, and even before the latter seem to be exercised, the child is conscious of pleasure and of pain; of warmth and cold; of hunger and thirst, or of repletion; of fatigue and rest; of the special senses of touch, taste, smell, hearing (music and discord, or noise); and of sight.

In addition to these,—which are purely physical,—are the emotions proper—fear, joy, surprise, terror, etc.; which, though apparently less physical, yet, at first or second hand, are really dependent for their reception and manifestation on an animal mechanism.

A child is like an electric battery in the sense that, whilst well and awake, it is constantly generating force;—and this nervous force, unless repressed by fear, or a stronger power than its own, has a tendency to run off (as the electric current does from the poles of the battery) in muscular motion, in jubilant cries, or leaps, or bounds—

“And four and twenty happy boys
Came bounding out of school.”

How different from the schoolboy, with satchel on his back, *creeping like a snail* unwillingly to school! The teacher should remember this, and after every lesson (which is a period of muscular constraint, especially when the class is kept in desks) she should give two or three minutes of sharp muscular gymnastic exercises, to bring down the blood from the brain to the limbs, to ease the strained muscles, and to divert the nerve currents into a healthy direction.

Special Emotions.

Among emotions proper, as distinguished from mere sensations, are the following:—

(a) *Novelty, Wonder, Surprise, Liberty, and Power.* These are powerful adjuncts to fixing the attention of the child, and every effort should be made by the teacher to make the fullest use of them, in instructing and educating the child.

Thus the above can be pleasurably excited in all Object Lessons, by means of objects placed before the sight, and, still better, in the handling, of the children. If, for instance, a lesson be given on a piece of coal, and a little of it, in the form of powder, be put into the bowl of a pipe and heated in the fire, the head of the bowl being covered with clay, it will not fail to excite novelty, wonder, and surprise, if a light be placed at the end of the stem, in order to show a simple means of manufacturing coal gas; or if the charred contents of the bowl are produced as coke manufactured off-hand. If, moreover, one of the children be made to assist in this and in similar experiments, the feelings of novelty, surprise, and wonder will be intensified, and in addition the sense of *power* will be excited.

Nor will it relax the bonds of discipline, if the innate love of liberty be allowed periodical indulgence from previous constraint, as at play-time, in the playground especially, if the teacher, as she should, join in the sports of the child. The teacher may indulge with children in the games and pastimes of the playground, without any loss of authority; a good disciplinarian can drop the playfellow in an instant, and resume the mistress. If, moreover, the teacher can exhibit greater skill than the child in mere sports and pastimes, she possesses in this a means of actually increasing her authority in actual school-keeping. She should, of course, not allow herself to be put into

ludicrous or degraded situations, where loss of respect would accrue. Zeal here, as elsewhere, should be tempered with discretion.

(b) *Fear*. This is also a powerful means of exciting attention, but should never degenerate into horror, which has disgust in it; or be intensified into terror, which reacts too powerfully on the vital processes of the subject, and may do irreparable harm. Thus, in describing events in giving a lesson in history, any repetition of the horrors of the battlefield should be carefully omitted.

Any threats of bogies, ghosts, or other spiritual and imaginary terrors, should be scrupulously avoided. Even placing children in solitary confinement in the dark is unjustifiable; while cutting a child off from companionship, by making him stand with his face against the wall, or on the form with his eyes closed, or forbidding speech from him for a time, are means lawfully at the disposal of the teacher.

(c) The emotions of *love*, *admiration*, *esteem* of others, and *self-esteem*, are also instruments of legitimate use. But these feelings should be called forth by worthy objects, and, wherever possible, means should be afforded for their concrete manifestation. This should be done that the indulgence of the emotion may not sink into mere weak sentiment; but become by association of idea developed into the habits of active benevolence. For this purpose occasional collections for charitable purposes, or for distressed objects, and for the promotion of useful public purposes, such as school libraries, etc., may be usefully encouraged by the teacher.

(d) *Anger* should never be exhibited by the teacher or encouraged in the scholar, except within the narrow limits of just indignation against unrighteous deeds; while even this should always have the corrective of pity for the offender, and the expression of a hope of his amendment.

(e) *The Moral Sense.* So far as children are concerned it will not perhaps be necessary for the teacher to distress herself by inquiry of too minute and searching a character into the *standard* of right and wrong. She may satisfy herself with the divine command, "Do to others as you would that they should do to you," or "Act in such a way that your conduct might be a law to all" (Kant). We believe that no problem will ever arise in school-keeping that cannot be solved by the foregoing standard. The *end* is first the welfare of the individual dealt with, and of the school next, and of society at large. The *means* are Rewards and Punishments. [See "Rewards and Punishments."]

C. VOLITION OR WILL.

This is the power of the child to act in accordance with its feelings or emotions. It thus includes all the functions of the body carried on by the brain and "voluntary" nerves; but excludes the mere "organic" functions of circulation, respiration, and secretion (including digestion) carried out by means of the "involuntary" nervous system over which the child has directly no control.

It is interesting to note that the will in a child has to be trained just as much as the intellect. In other words, the self-contained power of willing to do, or to leave a thing undone, is as much an acquirement, as the capability to solve problems in mathematical or social science. It is true that the child possesses from birth a spontaneity or tendency to muscular movement, but this is at first mere aimless, haphazard, muscular movement. It is only after repeated experiences of certain movements accomplishing certain ends, that the ends are aimed at. A mere infant, for instance, would not be able to direct its muscular energies to remove any object of irritation from any part

of its body ; but after accidental movements, several times repeated, have produced repeated pleasure or pain, the child associates pleasure and pain in its mind with these movements, and voluntarily produces them.

This is the justification of rewards and punishments in school life. The aim of the teacher is to associate pleasure with what she terms *good* actions, and pain with what she terms *bad* ones. The standard of right and wrong exists in the mind of the teacher first, and is through these means insensibly adopted by the child. Thus, long before the child can be reasoned with as to the evil effects on *others* of telling lies, saying bad words, stealing, etc., he is made to perceive, by punishment, that these actions bring pain of mind or body to *himself*. And to the degraded orders of society this is the only pain that is felt, even in adult life.

This is evidently an important consideration for the teacher ; and perhaps, after all, there is no greater distinction between the really educated and the uneducated man, than the possession of the control of the will over action in the one case, and its absence in the other. This is the fullest meaning of *discipline*, and makes the distinction between the action of a mob and that of a troop of soldiers, sailors, or police ; as well as of the "coolness" of a well-balanced individual mind in positions of suspense or peril, as contrasted with the headlong precipitation of one who has "lost his head." In a good school the sudden advent of an inspector, or other visitor, has little power of unfixing the attention of the children ; in a bad one the reverse is at once apparent. Similarly, no unexpected re-disposition of the ordinary school arrangements and positions of classes by an inspector, to test the ability of a teacher, will throw a good one off her balance ; while a bad one will loudly complain of circumstances over which she should have had perfect control. Orderliness on parade, which

melts away on the field of battle is the sign of a martinet, rather than of a general in real command.

Of course it will be understood that the child is not generally at any given time acting with only one part of its tripartite nature; but that generally intellect, emotion, and will are acting and reacting upon each other.

THE PRESENT.

DEPENDENCE ON SURROUNDINGS.—Moreover, the child is so dependent on its sensations, as called into action by the external world, that to a very great extent it may be said to be the creature of its surroundings.

This fact has been made too much of by one school of educationists, who have asserted that a child is absolutely what its surroundings of home, school, companions, etc., make it. This ignores the hereditary influences to which it has been subjected from its birth; and makes the present the only factor, to the exclusion of the past. It is doubtless true, that no two children, even of the same family, still less of different homes, may fairly be said to be subjected to the influence of the *same* surroundings. But the large differences in disposition, character, and mental and moral power, between offspring of the same parents brought up much alike, are greater than the differences in the bringing up alone; and these differences in character, etc., are as numerous and important as are those of physical health.

THE PAST.—*Heredity.*

OUTCOME OF PAST.—In rearing, breeding, and training animals, it is noted that the offspring closely resemble their parents, not only in colour, form, and muscular

development, but in the capacity for education, tendency to certain dispositions, etc. This is true of children in their highest capacities;—in other words, they are the result and outcome of past influences and surroundings.

THE FUTURE.

CREATOR OF FUTURE.—As a consequence of this it is an important consideration, that the child of to-day is the father of the man of the future; so that while we are educating the present generation, we are also sowing the seeds of a future harvest of good or evil to our country.

It is the glory of modern science that it has proved the indestructibility of force, the conservation of energy; that heat can be turned into electricity, and electricity into heat, etc.; in a word, that a force once set in action is never destroyed in its results. But this grand law is true not merely of physical, but also of *vital* forces; and not merely of *vegetable* and lower animal forms, but of man in his highest aspects. The disposition, habits, and character which are being moulded by the teacher,—even in an infant school, will to a great extent not only become permanent in the man or woman, but will be reproduced, or there will at least be a tendency to their reproduction, in their offspring. In this mental and moral direction there will be a “tendency to revert to the original species.”

Nature of School.

SCHOOL.—If such is the nature of the child, what ought to be the school in which that child is to be instructed and educated?

: In the first place, as the child is animal, provision should be made for that side of his being. Physical education should run side by side with mental and moral training,

and in the earliest stages should have a large share of the time of school ; this being diminished more and more as years bring power of self-restraint and self-governance of the muscular movements. To this extent in an Infant Department the school should be also the play-ground—the Kinder-garten—especially in the babies' room ; and not a chamber of horrors, for the slaughter of the innocents. If hands, ears, and eyes are employed, with frequent intervals of singing and marching, the child will develop simultaneously all round, and not become lop-sided—a precocious intellectual giant in the bodily form of a puny, hollow-eyed bantling.

But while we thus attend to the physical and intellectual wants, the school should also be a church to the child—not a wrestling-ground for controversy, but a “ House of God ; ” on entering which the child should instinctively feel that justice, good government, moral principles, praise for doing well and blame for ill-doing, respect for child-nature on the one side and for authority on the other, and reverence of the Creator, make up a “ service of perfect freedom.”

This is what is meant by *good tone*, and to a practised eye is soon discernible in its presence or absence. If present, the school is fulfilling its very highest educative function—the children are honest, happy, industrious ; if absent there will be repression, lying, copying, simulated joy unfelt, mechanical smiling with sudden shrinking or uplifting of the protective arm to the head, if one approach suddenly too near the unhappy wight thus kept in “ durance vile.”

The Infant School is designed for children between the ages of three and seven. These divide themselves into two groups—the Babies, from three to five, and Infants proper, from five to seven, years of age.

The teachers should all be female : a Head-Mistress,

Certificated Assistants, ex-Pupil Teachers, Pupil Teachers, and Monitors. As a rule, the best Head-Mistresses prefer to teach in Girls' rather than in Infants' Schools, mainly because the remuneration is generally greater in the former than in the latter; and, secondly, because many Head-Mistresses imagine that the work of Girls' Schools is the more interesting, and that it gives greater scope for their ability. But really the best mistresses are required for Infant Schools, and the work is more important than in Girls' Schools. A weak Infants' Department always makes a weak Boys' and Girls' School in the two lower standards at least, and there are more children kept from school by their parents between three and seven than in any other years between seven and fourteen. Hence in almost every Infants' School, besides the classes between five to six and six to seven, which have had preliminary Infant training, there are classes of "wastrels" of the same ages. The instruction of children at this early age is, therefore, as important as at any later ages; and the education is even more important. This neglect of parents is the great obstacle to the classification of an Infants' School by age; and of the slow reduction in number of the residuum of failures in the upper schools.

Part of this evil is due to parental carelessness, thoughtlessness, and even want of affection; part to the injudicious treatment of the "babies" and Infants proper by weak teachers.

Any national system of education to be judicious requires—

(1) The school life of the child to be dove-tailed into the home life, so that the latter may be insensibly merged into the former.

(2) A gradual introduction of the school life into the habits and requirements of actual life in the workshop, factory, counting-house, office, and shop.

The "baby" should, therefore, find in the schoolroom some of the accompaniments of home life, and of what ought to be its cheerful surroundings.

Hitherto this point has been overlooked, mainly through the inherent complexity of the subject, and the difficulty of Government Codes and male Inspectors dealing with the subject properly. A solution to the difficulty must be sought in "lady" managers, and in "lady" members of School Boards; assisted by female Inspectors specially trained for this work, and employed by School Boards.

The author feels more difficulty in treating of this part of his subject than of any other; and mainly depends on his own observations, corrected by the experience of some of the most successful Infant School teachers.

One of the most imperative necessities of a good Infant School generally, and of "Babies" in particular, is a *cheerful, motherly* sympathy with the young. Without this Infants become dull and languid; *instruction* only is attended to, while *education* is neglected; and even school songs and marching are perfunctorily done, and the children acquire a distaste for school altogether. Here more than anywhere else the *affections* of the child want cultivating, moral habits require forming, and a love of school should be implanted.

The lessons proper should be very short, and mixed, as much as possible, with play and bodily exercises; while nimbleness and thorough earnestness, both in work and play alike, should be constantly aimed at. Any signs of lassitude, or overstraining of the attention should be persistently watched for; and relief afforded by change of work or play.

CHAPTER II.

I.—SUITABLE INSTRUCTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS.

“No Merit grant is made unless the report on the instruction in the elementary subjects is satisfactory.” (Revised Code, p. 15).

The meaning of “Elementary” (or “Obligatory”) “Subjects” is given on p. 5, as referring only to Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic in Infant Schools.

A. READING.

This is the most important of the three elementary subjects in an Infant School:—

- (1) Because it requires *most time to teach*;
- (2) Because any deficiency in it, in the Infant School, is most felt in the upper departments;
- (3) And because it is the subject dealt with in the most *varied methods*.

TIME TO TEACH.

(1) Unless the Infant Teacher's efforts be limited to the acquirement by the children of the vocabulary of a mere primer, and the parrot-like repetition of sounds, without reference to the laws of combination of letters, teaching Reading requires in an Infant School as much time as both the Writing and Arithmetic taken together. Much of what is called Reading in an Infant School is mere

Repetition. This arises from no inherent incapacity in the class, for by good methods the top class of an Infant School can be taught to read, with ease, comfort and interest, in a Standard I. book. The source of the weakness is the too persistent simultaneous method, which dins sounds into the children's ears, which they repeat from knowledge of their connections, and which they can render as well without as with the book.

Weakness in Upper Department.

(2) The teachers of "older children" frequently commence the teaching of Reading in Standard I. from a zero of knowledge on the part of the child over seven years of age, in the case of wastrels swept into school for the first time. When this is the case, it is not found that the Writing and Arithmetic are insuperable difficulties; but the Reading is always weak both in that and in the succeeding standard. In the same way an inefficient Infant School always stamps the upper school, in Standards I. and II., with weakness in Reading. And yet female teachers up to Standard II. are, as a rule, more skilful, patient, discriminating, clear in enunciation, and acute in hearing slight differences of sound, than males of a corresponding age. Because of this, the Infant School is really the most important department, and it is gratifying to find that the government, in its Merit Grant, recognizes the fact.

Varied Methods.

(3) The study of the art of teaching Reading is also more important than that of teaching Writing and Arithmetic, because Reading is taught by the most *various methods* in Infant Schools. When the children have already acquired a vocabulary it is of less importance by what methods the Reading is continued to be taught, as they already possess sufficient bonds of mental adhesion to

teach themselves much in passing from the known to the unknown, with occasional help from the teacher. But in the Infant School the method is of the utmost consequence; and every Infant Teacher should make a careful study of the good and bad points of the various methods used, so as to select or frame one for herself. These comprise—

- (a) The LOOK AND SAY;
- (b) The ALPHABETIC;
- (c) The PHONIC; and
- (d) The COMBINED METHOD.

Before referring to each of these in detail, some remarks may be made upon the *Alphabet*.

This is *Script* and *Printed*, *Capital* and *Small*; so that if all four be taken up at once, there are 104 (4×26) arbitrary signs to be taught. Moreover, each of these 26 visible signs, to take one series only out of the four, has a name and also a use or power; and the latter is sometimes very far removed from the former.

On which of these should we begin our mode of attack? The dame-school method commences with A, and ends with Z. This is open to the objections—

- (a) It is not the capital, but the small letters that a child first requires to learn in order to read words.
- (b) There is no law of association of sound, shape or use, to be derived from this order.
- (c) Many of these capitals are at first rarely used.

Some Infant Schools commence with the capitals, because these can be formed by the children from sticks; but this is to sacrifice principles to mere mechanical processes.

The more logical process would be to commence with the small letters only (with the addition of I), and with only a few of these. The selection might be based—

- (1) On similarity of *shape*. This, though applicable to teaching script letters in groups, is not so much so to *printed* small letters.

(2) The basis of classification might be similarity of *sound*; b, p; f, v; t, d; etc.

(3) Better still, the order might be made to depend on *frequency of use* in the formation of small words. This latter notion suggests that the *short* sounds of the vowels with the most frequently used consonants, should be first given. This course has one great difficulty, viz. the *names* of the vowels are taken from their *long* use. To overcome this some teachers call these at first the short a, e, i, o, u.

Imperfections of the Alphabet.

Every primer written by a practical teacher, and not merely compiled by a publisher's assistant, is based on some few fundamental ideas; and these should engage the close attention of the teacher, unless she is going to be content with mere "Look and Say."

The difficulty of teaching Reading consists, whatever method be adopted, in the fact, that the signs for sounds are purely conventional. There is nothing in the *shape* of the letter *a* which should suggest any of its sounds; and indeed, in different languages, different shapes are chosen to represent the same sounds. It is no wonder, then, that children fail at first to associate together such widely dissimilar things, as a *visual* and an *auditory* experience.

No one can be a good teacher of Infant Reading who is not deeply conscious of the weakness of the instrument with which she has to deal. This has been well pointed out by Professor Meiklejohn.

"The English alphabet is a specimen of every malformation that can affect a code of signals.

(1) Some signals mean nothing at all.

(2) It has from 2—9 different answers to the same signal.

(3) It has from 2—5 different signals for the same answer.

- (4) It has only 26 signals for 45 different answers.
- (5) Of these only 8 are trustworthy.
- (6) Some cannot do their own work, and they try to do the work of other signals.
- (7) One of them (e) has about 20 functions.
- (8) Some of them strike work unless they may work together (Ph ; gh).
- (9) There are altogether about 150 signals.

"It looks a very easy matter to teach 26 letters, but it is in reality very difficult; one has no idea on what one embarks when one proposes to teach a child to read."

Composite character of the English Language.

The difficulties of teaching to read the English language because of its irregularities, are due to the fact that it is a composite language, mainly made up of Saxon, Norman-French, and Classic forms. The latter are regular in their pronunciation, being like the German, purely phonic—sounded as they are spelt; but being names of abstract ideas, mental processes and relations, etc., they do not much come within the compass of a young child's life.

There remain the Saxon and Norman-French; but really there were three dialects of the Saxon, and instances of all three are retained in our pronunciation, which is quite as parti-coloured and mosaic as is the structure of the language itself. Thus the normal pronunciation of *one* in *alone*, *only*, *atone*, etc., is *ohn*; but in one it is *wun*, borrowed from the dialect of the south.

These several Saxon dialects were subsequently mixed with modes of pronunciation borrowed from the Danish and Norman-French, and later from modern French, German, etc., so that we have at last a confusion of pronunciation that is bewildering.

If the alphabet were perfect, (1) each letter would be

the visible sign of one sound only; and (2) each sound in the language would have its corresponding sign, and one only; in other words, the *eye* and the *ear* would never deceive each other.

As instances of the want of this, take the following :—

(1) *Where one sign has not a corresponding fixed sound*—as in any (ə), fat (ă), fate (â), father (ah), fall (au).

But combinations also often have no fixed value, but differ in different connections, as *ea* in mean (ē), yea (â), instead (ē), hearth (ah), earth (with the sound of *i* in bird), beefsteak (where the *ea* is not quite so long as in yea). In fact, the vowel changes which are rung on the visible signs, run into one another in almost an arbitrary manner; till eye and ear give the lie to each other.

Moreover, many of these 26 letters of our alphabet are redundant, as *c, k, q*; or are in some cases alike in use, as *s* and *c*, *s* and *z*, *g* and *j*; *i* and *y*.

(2) *But each sound has not its corresponding sign.* Thus the long sound of *a* may be represented by *â, eigh, ey, ai, ay*; while we have *au, aŭ, a*; *eo, ou, ow, eu, ew, ô, eau, oh, oa, and oe*; *êe, ea, eo, ei, ie, i, oo, and u*; *eu, ew, ieu, eau, ui, and ue*; *ou and ow*; *oi and oy*; *i, uy, eye, ui, igh, y, and ie*; *sh and ch*; *f and ph*; to represent respectively similar groups of sounds.

As a typical picture of the incongruity of our language in this respect, the following group of inconsistencies is often given :—

(1)	B	ough	ow (sound)
(2)	C	ough	off „
(3)	Hicc	ough	up „
(4)	L	ough	ock „
(5)	Th	ough	ô „
(6)	Thr	ough	û „
(7)	En	ough	uff „
(8)	Thor	ough	ö „

With such a state of things no wonder that the child is drawn to a Look-and-Say method of his own, from the very first page of nine-tenths of the primers, the writers of which have conceived that in giving *short* words they have given easy ones, whereas it is the short words, and those most commonly used, that are the hard ones of the language: as in they (where e = a, and y is silent); on, no, to (where o has a different sound in each case), and so on.

Many of the letters and combinations have no use so far as fixing the pronunciation is concerned—they are silent letters and combinations. The silent gh is found in seventy-five words in the language; as after i (nigh), ou (bough), au (naught), ei (eight), etc.

Learning to read English on the ordinary Look-and-Say and Alphabetic methods is, to a great extent, like learning written Chinese, where each separate symbol has a separate meaning. This is true at least to the extent of 1300 of the words of the language; and of these 800 are monosyllables, and stand at the threshold of learning to read.

The remedy of this must be:—

1. Teaching the child one function of a letter only at a time.

2. Diacritical marks to point out the different functions. Moreover, (1) the child is set to learn two different kinds of printed letters in the same function, viz. small and capitals; and (2), there are (a) script and (b) print (or rather several print) characters, as M and m.

A child might fairly, therefore, ask the teacher when told to write down the sound of ā on a slate:—

1. Do you mean me to write it in script or print?
2. If in print, whether in capital or small?
3. Whether in script or print, is it to be ā, eigh, ay, ai, ay, etc.?

As a solution of the first difficulty, we would suggest that either script reading sheets alone, or printed ones

should be at first alone used. The advantage of the former would be that reading and writing could go together, as they should do; and the blackboard could be largely used. The advantage of the latter would be that the ordinary reading sheets and books could be used; but the disadvantage would be that teachers cannot readily write print-letters on the blackboard.

The second difficulty is obviated by the use of small letters only, with the exception of *I*, which should have a double sign, *i* and *I*. This is done in some primers, but it is accompanied by the difficulty that Infant School teachers unfortunately often commence to teach the writing of the alphabet with the capitals, alleging that these are simpler in formation.

The last difficulty would be overcome by using letters in one function only at a time, and teaching the irregular combinations on a professedly Look-and-Say method.

Various devices have been from time to time employed to teach the Alphabet, such as separate letters on wood and cardboard, and conventional rhymes. If the latter are used, they should be within the comprehension of the child, and not contain such recondite notions as—

“F stands for eFfigy, that’s burnt upon Guy Faux;” or
“H is heard in aitchH-bone, a useful joint of beef.”
(P is it.)

“Z in Zedekiah, the last of Judah’s Kings.”
Even the old-fashioned—

“A was an Archer that shot at a frog,”
is constructed on the fallacy of proceeding from the unknown instead of from the known:—the child knows nothing of the word “Archer” at this early stage.

READING SHEETS.

The most useful apparatus is the large Reading Sheet (Daldy and Isbister's, or Chambers'). No children should be put to books until they have gained a vocabulary from the use of such sheets; indeed, they save time when used for the "wastrels" of Standard I. Avoid sheets that have small print—the sight of children is frequently otherwise injured. Avoid also those that are mere pretty picture sheets, got up by publishers to sell, without any logical ideas of construction in them.

METHODS OF TEACHING TO READ.

(1) LOOK-AND-SAY.—This method is strictly analytic: the word as a whole is first taught, without reference to the powers or uses of the component parts of it (the letters). Thus, if *at* be chosen as a starting-point, from this *bat*, *cat*, *fat*, etc., are taught, and the class unconsciously learns the use of the initial consonants, *b*, *c*, *f*, etc. That is, the children first learn to identify and pronounce words at sight, and then, by analysis and comparison, master the powers of the letters composing the words. The teacher commences with a reading sheet of carefully graduated small words, arranged in short sentences as, "*It is a fat rat*," etc. Suppose the first sentence is—

"The cat is on the mat."

This is slowly read several times by the teacher, who points to each word as she reads it. The word-pictures are thus like hieroglyphics, and are sought to be impressed on the minds of the children, by the association between the auditory and visual impressions they create. When this bond of attachment is rivetted, the class is made to read

the sentence simultaneously several times ; and finally the same thing is done individually ; and the same words are picked out by the children on other parts of the sheet, or from a different sheet.

The child is thus led, unconsciously at first, or with the suggestion of the teacher, to notice the likeness and unlikeness of words similarly or dissimilarly constructed ; and repetition fixes this discrimination into memory, the alphabet being called in to mark these differences, or likenesses, of form.

The objection to the method, as frequently used, is that it dissociates the spelling from the reading, in the case even of the words of regular formation ; and creates no Court of Appeal for baffled teacher or child.

(2) THE ALPHABETIC.—The *Alphabetic* method, which has the authority of long usage, if that is worth anything, begins with the letters of the alphabet, giving to these arbitrary names not distinctive of their *powers*, *sounds*, or *uses* (at any rate in all cases), and then proceeds to combinations of the letters into syllables and words. Monosyllables are first attempted, but only those made up of the *short* uses of the vowels, as *am*, *an*, *at* ; *is*, *it*, *if*, etc. ; *on*, *or*, etc. These are succeeded by monosyllables which introduce the long sounds of the vowels. Every word is first spelt, and then pronounced, the children being left to learn the actual sounds represented by the letters by a process of unconscious induction. Hence the old-fashioned way of learning to read was from a spelling book. As the names of the letters do not, in the majority of cases, correspond with the sounds of the letters, and as many letters represent a variety of sounds, it is clear that the Alphabetic method is false in principle and must be tedious in operation. It seems to be synthetical, but, in reality it is not so, the aggregate of the names of the letters composing a word affording but a slight clue,

except in the case of words that are spelled phonetically, to the pronunciation of the word. It is urged in favour of this method that by it children are taught to spell as well as to read; and experience shows that spelling is learnt by the repetition of the visual impressions made by syllables and words.

Currie says that when this method takes the spelling along with the sounds, its object is simply that the spelling may be learnt with the reading—the two being associated together. Gladman asserts that this teaching reading by spelling inverts the natural order of things—that we spell well because we read well. But if the association between reading and spelling is fixed by repetition, it is idle to inquire which precedes the other; it is sufficient that they become indissolubly linked together by concentrated attention given to visual impression, whether obtained by an Alphabetic, Look-and-Say, Phonetic, or Phonic method. A good teacher will teach accurate reading and spelling together by any of the methods chosen, and a bad teacher will not succeed in doing so by any of them; and the success or failure will depend upon the power of concentrating the attention of the class on the visual impressions.

The supporters of the Look-and-Say method also object to the Alphabetic on the ground of its inverting the order of nature in teaching the elements first, whereas children in learning to talk commence with complete words. The remarks given above apply to this objection also, and the Look-and-Say itself is not perfectly natural, for it is compelled to begin with words of the simplest structural character, whereas in learning to talk children do not commence with these only.

(3) The PHONIC methods are various, and are based on a *Phonetic* notion.

A true *phonetic* method gives a separate symbol to each

separate sound; and thus uses many more than the 26 conventional letters of the alphabet. The objection to this is a practical one; separate type has to be cast for this special purpose.

To avoid this difficulty Phonic methods use the ordinary letters of the alphabet, with diacritical marks to denote their varied uses, as *ā*, *ă*, etc. With specially trained teachers the Robinson Phonic method has achieved great success, but its use is limited, owing to—

(a) The difficulty of securing teachers trained by the living voice of experts.

(b) The great demand on the throat-powers of the teacher.

(c) The urgent stress on the mental powers of the child.

(d) The difficulty in the spelling of the irregular words.

The Robinson Phonic method is strictly synthetic, but the Home and Colonial Phonic is analytic. In this latter form a picture of a cat may be shown to the class, and to this the name *cat* is added. The sound of the word as a whole is analyzed into *c*, *a*, *t*, so that the function of each element may be perceived. Constant repetition gives a link of association in the mind of the class between the arbitrary *sign* and the corresponding *sound*; and to aid this the sign is written on the blackboard, and on the slate, and the children are required to pick out similar signs, *c*, *a*, *t*, out of loose letters on cardboard or wood, or from the reading sheet.

(4) The COMBINED METHOD.—It is obvious that the preceding methods may be used in combination. Teachers who use the Alphabetic method endeavour indirectly to teach the powers of the letters as well as their names. Those who use the Phonic method are compelled to teach large numbers of words by the Look-and-Say method. Those who teach words, as wholes, decompose the words into their Phonic elements in order to teach the powers

of single letters and syllables, so as to enable children to read words they have not seen.

The combined method of teaching the alphabet that seems the best is that suggested by the Report to the London School Board on methods of teaching to read (some modifications in which have been here suggested by the present writer)—

“(1) The *forms* of the letters are taught, *i.e.* children are taught to identify them. This is done by requiring the children to observe how the letters are formed; to ‘match’ the letters; and to reproduce them on the blackboard.

“(2) The *names* are associated with the *forms* for purposes of reference; not for use in spelling words on the Alphabetic plan.

“For some time the children should be confined to one alphabet in small letters, print or script, the introduction of two or three only serving to multiply the difficulties.

“The letters should be classified in the order of the simplicity of their outline.

“Advantage should be taken of the laws of association to connect the forms of the letters with the common objects which they resemble, even a remote resemblance being often quite enough to satisfy the active imagination of children, and powerfully to assist the memory.

“From the beginning, the children should be required to reproduce the letters in simple outline.

“Teachers should take special pains to secure distinct articulation, purity of pronunciation, and a good *style* of reading from the outset. Much labour would be saved in the upper departments of a school if more pains were taken to prevent the formation of bad habits in these respects in the lower departments.

“(1) The teacher reads a paragraph by herself.

“(2) The children read it simultaneously.

“(3) They are then called upon to read it individually.

It is clear that if the class be large, the children often get little or no practice in independent reading. In the earlier stages abundant individual practice is indispensable to rapid progress. The children in these stages have to acquire the power of recognizing with the *eye* words familiar to the *ear*, and to pronounce words strange both to eye and ear. The former can only be acquired by the frequent repetition of impressions on the visual memory; the latter by constant practice in decomposing words into their syllables and elementary sounds, and then reconstructing the words from their elements.

"We would strongly recommend the systematic learning and reciting of poetry as a valuable means of cultivating the imagination, rendering the ear sensitive to rhythmic constructions, improving the delivery, and extending the vocabulary. The poetry should be learnt from the book, and not by parrot-like vocal repetition. Reading is primarily a visual exercise, and no opportunity should be lost for familiarizing children with the *look* of the printed words.

"Purity of pronunciation and distinctness of articulation should be carefully cultivated at all times in school; but they are so essential to good reading that we would recommend short exercises, preliminary to the reading lesson, for their special cultivation. [London teachers should strive to eradicate the common blunders of substituting *oi* for *i*, *ae* for *a*, *i* for *e*, adding *k* to final *ng*, the omission of the aspirate where it should be sounded, and the insertion of it where it has no proper place.] Great pains should also be taken to prevent the blurring of the vowels in the unaccented syllables of words. The difficulties of our spelling are greatly increased by the mispronunciation even of those few words which are phonetically represented. If children are allowed to say *savidge* for *savage*, *noine* for *nine*, *winder* for *window*, *singin'* for *singing*, *caoud* for *code*, *elemunt* for *element*, *paliss* for *palace*, *wessel* for *vessel*, *yer*

for *your*, and *pint* for *point*, it is not surprising that they misspell these words when they come to write them."

It is a combined method that is generally, though often unconsciously, used by most teachers. One form of it is elaborated in Dalby and Isbister's Combined Primer and Reading Sheets, and has met with very great success in many Infant Schools. The writer would, however, recommend those teachers who adopt this form to omit the alternate pages of the Primer at the end of the book, where difficult words are given out of their organic connections, as words should be learnt from their uses, not as isolated symbols. The advantages of the Combined Method are also brought together in the Crown Primer.

The following condensed tabular statement of the comparative advantages and disadvantages of the several methods of teaching to read may be found suggestive to the Junior Teacher:—

LOOK-AND-SAY.

Advantages.

1. The *whole word* is taken in at once by the eye, as in adult reading, and as the child hears words in speech; so that it is a *natural method*.
2. *Irregular words must be thus learned.*

Disadvantages.

1. Unless care be taken it leads to *guessing*, as of *thought* for *though*, etc.
2. It is liable to slovenliness of pronunciation and indistinct enunciation.
3. It does not produce good spelling in early stages. [This difficulty disappears in the top-class Infants, or Standard I., when spelling proper is employed, after a vocabulary has been gained.]
4. Compared with the Phonic, the class is a long time before it unconsciously has learned the *uses* of letters; and hence hesitates before *new words* more than with the former.

ALPHABETIC.

Advantages.

1. It teaches spelling from the first.
2. The act of spelling, even of the irregular words (*which*, etc.), concentrates the attention of the child, who does not mentally refer to the names but to the combination of the letters. He does not think of *wh*, etc., as "double you-aitch," but as a combination with which he was previously familiar in the word *which*.

Disadvantages.

1. The names of the letters are seldom suggestive of their uses, and the child becomes confused thereby.
2. Average teachers with this alone gain little success, and often make children disgusted with reading.
3. The process is the reverse to the natural mode of acquiring language in speech.

THE ROBINSON PHONIC.

Advantages.

1. It makes the names of the letters (and combinations) suggest and express their uses (powers or functions).
2. It gives a sign for every sound, and a sound for every sign.
3. It makes use of combinations to express single sounds, as *ow*, etc.
4. It gives the best enunciation and purity of voice.
5. It strengthens mental effort on the part of the child.
6. It is the best method for teaching the child to find out for himself.
7. A teacher of it knows best which are *hard* words (for Reading and Dictation).

Disadvantages.

1. It is accompanied at first with imperfect spelling, owing to the irregularities of the language.
2. It requires special type for a few "sounds."
3. It demands great energy and skill from the teacher.
4. A slight difficulty arises in the transition from the Phonic to ordinary type.
5. It leaves the difficulty of the irregular words (25 per cent. of the whole) to be taught by the Look-and-Say.
6. It requires special preparation, for want of which many teachers have failed.

THE COMBINED METHOD.

The advantage of this is that it selects the good points of all three of the preceding, and avoids the weaknesses. In other words, it has no disadvantages compared with 1, 2, and 3.

FAULTS IN READING.

The most common mistakes made in Reading in an Infant School are the following:—

A. *Imperfect Enunciation.*

B. *Incorrect Pronunciation.*

A. *Imperfect Enunciation* of vowel sounds and of the initial and final consonants, and of syllables. This frequently arises from imperfect models furnished by the vocabulary of the home and street. Every language as it grows generally shortens its words. This arises from the vicious idleness and untidiness of speech of the vulgar, turning, for instance, cucumbers into cumpers, potatoes into taters, and even tates, etc. The teacher should rigidly insist upon the whole word, and every non-silent letter in it, being always distinctly rendered.

The letters most frequently used wrongly are the s, which in lisping is turned into *th*; as *thith* for this.

TH, which is converted into *d*, as in *fader* for father.

R, which is by children (and a few grown-up persons) turned into *w*, as the stars "*woll wound the pole.*"

In the rural parts of the Midlands, where the old plural endings in *en* still prevail (housen, placen, hosen, etc.), the final s is seldom clearly and distinctly sounded.

The correction of such mistakes as the preceding can be assisted by the repetition of such forms as—

s. Sing a song of sixpence.

TH. Father, and mother, and brother, and all.

R. Around the rugged rock the ragged rascal ran.

Sometimes the fault takes the form of slurring words together, as "on Thee our-ropes we fix," for "on Thee our hopes we fix."

B. *Incorrect Pronunciation*, as of *oi* for *i*, in *foine* for fine; *oi* for *io*, in *voilet* for violet; and all the various provincialisms, such as turning *a* into *e*, or *e* into *a*, etc., etc.

As the junior teacher, from living in the daily hearing of these, often herself has a vitiated ear, and, of course, is therefore unconscious of it, she should keep a written record of the provincialisms of her own district as noted by her Head Mistress; and purify her ear by occasional practice, or she will have a hard time when she goes to Training College. It is painful to watch the vexation of such students, when being broken of these early defects. Having a deficient ear, to which the voice is tuned, they perceive no difference between what they utter, and what they are wanted to say.

Besides the preceding we have the dropping of the letter *h*, or, which is still more torturing, the prefixing of it to every open vowel sound.

As instances of this we may hear, "the 'air of the 'ed," or the "hair of the hatmosphere." In the Midlands the *h* is used in the latter way, as if it were a legitimate mode of expressing emphasis. The following line may be repeated to correct both faults:—

"Up the high hill he heaved a huge round stone;" or
"How high his honour holds his haughty head."

The preceding remarks may be concluded with the following:—

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS TO JUNIORS.

(1) Study Meiklejohn's "Problem of Teaching to Read," but do not accept any conclusions from it which you cannot substantiate from your own actual experience when your attention has been called to them.

(2) In the later infant stages *teach reading and spelling together*, so far as the *regular* words of the language are concerned. Fix attention on the *irregular* constructions by means of the blackboard in the upper classes; and fall back on the *Look-and-Say* method for the same in the lower sections.

(3) *Carefully study your Primer*, underline all the difficult words in it, and use this as a "Teacher's Book." This cannot be done off-hand while teaching, as it requires great judgment and deliberation; have a reason for underlining each word that is thus marked.

(4) Interpolate in the "Teacher's Book" common words of similar construction to those in the text; so as to bring into the lesson all the good points of the Phonic method; and use the blackboard to illustrate these. For example, in the lower class "man" would suggest "ran," "can," etc.; in the upper classes, "would" will suggest "should," "could." But do not introduce words beyond the comprehension of the child, as "ban," "van." We cannot too strongly insist that the use of words must be taught in their organic connections, not as isolated symbols; language, at least to infants, is *living speech*, not a collection of conventional hieroglyphics.

(5) Insist on the children reading sufficiently aloud to be heard both by the teacher and by every member of the class.

(6) Be chary in the use of simultaneous reading; it is a potent instrument for *evil*, as well as for good. It may "cover a multitude of sins" to an inexperienced observer,—it will never deceive an inspector, though it frequently deceives the teacher herself, who may remain unconscious of the deficiencies it screens. Above all, let the simultaneous repetitions be given to those abnormal words on which it is necessary to fix attention—not to parrot-like repetitions of *a, a, a; man, man, man; can, can, can*, etc.; when the class can already read "*a man can*," etc., as well as the teacher herself.

(7) Do not "*tell*" the children more than is absolutely necessary; let them "*find out*" for themselves. You have to teach the children *how* to read; not merely to read a few pages of a selected book.

(8) Be content by good methods to do a little well at first; more rapid progress will thus be finally made, than by merely cultivating verbal and visual memory.

(9) In selecting a Primer avoid those which are half pictures. Too many pictures are a great waste of space; distract the attention of the children; and are chiefly inserted by publishers to make the books *sell*. On the other hand, select books that break up the subject matter into short sentences and numbered paragraphs, with good spaces between the lines.

(10) Do not keep the class at one book until it can read *without effort*; each page ought to require fixed attention. A judicious inspector always makes allowance for difficulties not readily conquered by the children.

(11) Remember that it is not, as a rule, the *long* words that are the difficult ones, but the short words of abnormal construction, "one," "eyes," etc.

(12) Let the repetition of children's poetry be made an instrument for teaching expression in reading; but in the selection of this, aim at pieces expressive of *children's* sentiments, and which avoid abstract notions and words.

(13) Constantly keep in mind the elements in which good reading mainly consists, viz.—

(a) *Clear enunciation* (pure vowel sounds, with complete rendering of the consonants, especially the final consonants, NG, TH, T, S, etc.). Nearly every case of a child's use of d instead of th (*dis* for *this*), and such characteristic mistakes, arises not from malformation of vocal organs, but from home influences and an untrained ear: correct these by showing the child the proper use of the tongue, teeth, etc.

(b) *Correct pronunciation* of the word as a whole.

(c) *Emphasis and expression* by means of modulation. The Teacher should furnish a good copy to be imitated; and in the upper part of an Infant School (top section of

six to seven year old children), the class will readily imitate the modulation of the teacher. Of course, *accurate* reading is of more consequence than emphasis, but the latter can be frequently obtained in addition, especially where the teacher herself has a pure voice and true ear.

The effect of emphasis may be illustrated by the different shades of meaning that could be given to the quotation, "Betrayest thou the Son of Man with a kiss?" according as the stress is laid on the different words. The real intention of a remark is sometimes entirely dependent on the emphasis, as in "Did you write?"—

- (i.) *Did you write?*
- (ii.) *Did you write?*
- (iii.) *Did you write?*

(14) Pass over in the primer such useless matter as *ab*, *eb*, *ib*, *ob*, *ub*; and keep the attention of the children for *real* words, not senseless combinations of letters.

(15) Remember that though *which*, if spelt, is turned, as Professor Meiklejohn says, into "doubleyou-aitch-aye-see-aitch" to *you*, it is not so turned to the child (*he* does not conceive of *w* as "*doubleyou*"); and that spelling, even in such an abnormal word, has the limited use of fixing visual (though not auditory) memory.

REMARKS OF H.M.'S INSPECTORS ON READING.

"As soon as the children are able to deal with simple phrases and combinations, as "a fat pig," etc., they should be made to understand that these words *mean something*, that such words as "pig" stand for *things* with which they are familiar. Exact definitions are, of course, not to be looked for at this early stage; but teachers should prepare a child to show, in its own simple language, that it really apprehends what the words represent."—MR. FUSSELL.

[For this purpose Chambers' Reading Sheets, with small *single* pictures accompanying the names, are very useful.]

"Accuracy and expression are often defective. These faults might to a great extent be overcome, if the teacher would make it a constant habit to read aloud to the class, paragraph by paragraph, the passage chosen for the lesson."—MR. BALMER.

"I believe the expression would improve if the teachers began with the young children, for these are very good mimics."—MR. JARMAN.

"Infant School Teachers can greatly assist Reading. When a child reads well in an Infant School such reading is seldom afterwards lost. Loud reading is advisable in beginners; in good Infant Schools reading is generally so taught. The child who begins is persuaded almost to holla, and then its reading being eulogized, by degrees the rest follow its example, and thus loud reading becomes the habit of the whole class."—MR. GREAM.

"I am inclined to think that the main difficulty of reading English arises from the intrinsic *irregularity* of the English language in regard to its pronunciation of the letters. A child is taught the powers of the letters *first of all*, and as soon as it is set to read words naturally expects to find this teaching verified. In place of this it is wholly set at nought before he gets through the very first page of his reading-book. Henceforth a confusion of ideas begins to set in respecting the powers of the letters, which is very slowly and painfully cleared up by chance, habit, or experience. His capacity to know words when he sees them in print is gained by an immense series of tentative efforts, until by sheer dint of *memory* he can tell them as soon as they turn up in his book."—DR. MORRELL.

"I recommend teachers to begin Spelling with Reading, and after each lesson to close the book or turn the card, to hear the words spelt."—MR. BARRY.

"Too often the class reads in exact order of standing or sitting; this begets inattentiveness. Moreover, every child should be able to hear every other child, both to be able to keep the place, and note errors."—MR. BRODIE.

"The first requisite of Reading is audibility. Here are three mechanical rules for obtaining it: (1) Hold up the head; (2) Speak slowly; (3) Read out. It is rare to get the heading of the lesson read."—MR. BRODIE.

"The Reading is not yet based on an intelligent knowledge of vocal mechanism. From the Infant Schools up it is still too much taught by loud simultaneous reading after the teacher. Teachers do not, as a body, pay that attention to Elocution which is so distinctly due from them."—MR. GRAVES.

"Infants are capital mimics, and under an able mistress acquire fluency and expression. This accomplishment, once gained, is never lost, if only their subsequent training is moderately efficient."—MR. HARRISON.

B. SPELLING.

This subject is grouped with Writing by the Government, but properly is a part of Reading; or if not so taken should stand separately. Great attention is necessarily paid to it in the schools for "older children," but it ought not to be neglected in the Infant School, or otherwise a legacy of difficulty is left for Standard I.

The subject is naturally divided into two parts—

(1) The regular words : these certainly should be spelt as well as read.

(2) The irregular words (25 p. c.). Even with these, spelling *fixes the attention* on the construction of the word, and Reading, still more Spelling, is taught by the eye rather than by the ear. Hence in cases of doubt we *write the word to see how it looks*. Even when we spell words orally, the mind conceives visual spectra of the word. Hence the blackboard should be constantly used in the teaching of spelling, and transcription rather than dictation should be depended on. In the Infant School the Spelling should be given in conjunction with the Reading lesson. If lists of "spellings" are given at the top of the reading lesson, these should be well learned, so as to give the undisturbed attention to the reading matter. The *laws* of spelling should be pointed out in the lesson, as the suppression of final *e* on the addition of *ing* and *ed*, as move, moving, moved.

The proper use of Dictation is to *test*, not to *teach* spelling.

GOVERNMENT QUESTIONS (SCHOLARSHIP).

1. How have you conducted Reading Lessons ? How were mistakes of pronunciation corrected ? What faults have you found the most common ? How did you correct them ?

2. Describe the manner in which you have been accustomed to conduct a Reading Lesson ? Do you let the children read simultaneously, or only singly ? How do you correct mistakes, and how do you endeavour to make the children understand what they read ?

3. What should be the next steps in reading after a child has mastered the forms of the letters and powers of the vowels ? Give examples of a few such lessons.

4. In the following sentence explain the peculiar difficulties presented by the words printed in *italics* in early stages of reading: "He *would* take no *pains* to *teach* *any* boy, *who* could not at least *write* *what* boys of *eight* years old can write."

5. Divide the following words into two classes, according as the letters which compose them do or do not represent the same sounds in a considerable number of other words: pen, who, screen, eyes, plague, only, two, too, would, cough, there, were. Give your reasons.

6. Which are the silent letters in the following words: often, would, answer, track, lambkin, friend, know, furious? How is the type of printed books sometimes varied to assist young children in overcoming this difficulty?

7. Describe the various methods used to teach spelling in your school? Did you rely chiefly on the eye or on the ear in teaching spelling? How did you correct written exercises in spelling?

8. What method should be adopted in teaching little children to read? Explain the method fully.

9. What is meant by the Phonic System of teaching to read? Give some of the principal arguments put forward by advocates of this system.

10. Describe one of the following methods of teaching to read: (a) The Name Method; (b) the Phonic Method; (c) the Look-and-Say Method.

11. What are the chief difficulties in giving a reading lesson to a class of children from 4 to 8 years old? How should these difficulties be overcome?

12. Describe clearly your method of teaching the Alphabet, and to read words of one syllable.

13. What are the qualities of good reading? How may they be obtained?

14. Name some of the chief difficulties in teaching younger children the Phonic System.

15. How would you deal with indistinctness and slurring?

16. What is the object of simultaneous reading? How may its defects be supplied?

17. Give instructions as to a Pupil Teacher on the management of a class in reading.

18. What are the chief difficulties which a schoolmistress of necessity meets with on teaching reading in her different classes? How should these difficulties be overcome?

CHAPTER III.

WRITING.

THIS is the easiest, but not always the best taught, subject in an Infant School.

The script alphabet should alone be taught; and at first only the small letters. The latter should be taken in groups of similar shapes; and at a subsequent stage the capitals, similarly subdivided, should be taken.

Writing is a mechanical art; in it the children acquire visual pictures of the combinations of straight and curved lines, and then imitate them by hand.

Writing should be one of the earliest exercises of the child in the Infant School. It is mainly an imitative process, and imitation is the faculty in which young children excel; it would thus also add a variety to the reading, and impress this on the memory by another bond of attachment. In every good Infant School, some such plan as that in the writing syllabus given below should be adopted. Where there is regularity of attendance, early admission to school, and a sufficient and competent staff, the first class of infants ought to be able to write, in large or text hand, a line of the primer or first reading book before being drafted upstairs.

A very great aid in teaching writing at all stages is the drawing lesson as an accompaniment. Huxley recently asserted that *everybody* could be taught to draw, at least in

the same sense that everybody can be taught to write (well or ill); but too frequently drawing is not begun until children have attained Standard III., and the benefit of close association between writing and drawing in the Infant School, and for Standards I. and II., is needlessly lost.

It is most essential that the *blackboard* should be used very freely by both children and teachers. Before using slates a number of lessons should be given on the *blackboard*, say in the following order:—

(1) Lesson on straight lines between ruled lines of one space.

(2) Lesson on lines of various lengths (one and two spaces).

(3) Straight lines with curves at one end (hooks and links).

(4) Curved lines forming an oval () o, a, c.

After each of the above has been carefully gone through by the teacher, some children might be allowed to copy the lines and curves on the board, the remainder of the class pointing out any fault; this will keep all the class occupied and interested. The teacher could then illustrate faults on the *board*. Afterwards repeat straight lines ending with curves, and curved lines ending with a curve. The children might now try the same on their slates, the teacher going round to examine, and commending the best productions.

Teaching writing should inculcate *Order* (the slates and pencils should be given out and collected very orderly), and *Neatness* (cleanliness of the slates). *Quietness* should also be connected with the teaching of writing,—this and needlework being the most silent lessons taught in a school. *Spelling* in the later stages should also be conjoined; every child should be able to spell and pronounce his or her copy.

The art of writing well is a very important one ; and in its acquisition many useful habits of mind and body can be fostered by a good teacher ; such as—

(1) MEASUREMENT.—Training the eye to recognize and measure distance, shape, size, straight and curved lines.

(2) MANIPULATION.—It trains the hands to imitate, and in so doing it gives manipulative skill for drawing, and many useful processes of manufacture in after life. Indeed, before the introduction of Kinder-garten teaching into Infant Schools, it was the only instrument by which children learnt nimbleness and dexterity in the use of the fingers.

(3) MORAL LESSONS.—Moreover, learning to write, though it requires little exercise of reason, so that the dullest may become good writers, yet requires *patience, perseverance, care, watchfulness, and a continuance in well doing*, as well as *neatness and accuracy*. All these may be more fostered by learning to write than by any other school subject except drawing.

PARENTS' ESTIMATE.—Good writing is also highly valued by *parents*, and many judge of their children's work as a whole by this single subject.

OBJECTS TO BE AIMED AT.—The principal things to be aimed at in teaching a good style of writing are—legibility, ease, and style ; that is, the writing should be (1) easily read, (2) well shaped, and (3) written without labour.

(1) *Legibility*.—To secure this the children should be taught to write a plain, non-ornamental, bold, round, compact hand, without "flourishes" and long loops, and with uniform slant.

(2) *Ease or Freedom* is acquired by practice only, but should be aimed at from the first. To this end never on any pretence allow the erasure of a single letter or word. If anything requires altering, let the child cross out what has been previously written, and re-write the correction

(of spelling, etc.) over the top. In this way alone is it possible to prevent the habit of writing and constant rubbing out in which so many children indulge.

As a matter of fact, especially where too much slate work in dictation is practised, children generally err in writing too quickly, and almost every help to *slow* and careful writing is useful to the teacher; but still a laboured, stiff, formal habit may be acquired. In order that there may be *fluency* in the writing, the pen should not be lifted from the paper more than is absolutely necessary. The habit is also secured by bold, large writing in the Infant School.

(3) The *style* depends on the uniformity of the roundness of the curves, of the lengths of the loops, of the height and depth of the stems, of the distances between the words, letters, and component parts of the letters, and on the slope; as well as on the firmness of the outlines, which should not be foggy or ragged, but clean in their sweep.

As mechanical aids the teacher should "guide the hand" of the pupil, write *for the child* on its slate, give copy-books with letters marked in different coloured ink to be traced over by the child, or with dotted outlines, these gradually ceasing; but the class should be taught where to begin, whether an upstroke or a downstroke is required, and to neatly effect the junctions.

If the teacher has made a study of the subject of writing, and has elaborated a system of her own, the copy-book is frequently not used at all, only slates and ruled exercise books being used; and this plan has the advantage of securing the same style of writing throughout the school. But this should not be ventured on unless

(a) The teacher has a good style.

(b) Has thoughtfully elaborated a system of teaching it.

By others recourse should be had to the careful working out of a system in a set of copy-books, such as Betmrose's, etc., only *one set* of books being used in the same school.

Moreover, a writing lesson should always be illustrated by the use of at least one, if not two blackboards; one for the copy, the other for the pupil to write on, and for the teacher to analyze the copy and correct mistakes. In this subject the teacher's place is not, as in the reading lesson, in front of the class, but frequently among the children—giving a little to be done, and going rapidly in and out of the class to see that little done well. This requires a very rapid eye, and the teacher should cultivate the habit of examining the work on both sides of her in passing along desks, reading upside down as well as from bottom to top. A lesson thus faithfully given is one of the most exacting in the school, and is very far removed from "giving the children something to do to keep them quiet." If a child has made a wrongly shaped letter, or has made it properly shaped in a wrong way, a bad habit has been formed which will have to be *unlearned* before the child is in a fit state to begin to learn the good habit sought to be inculcated.

When an examiner sees the same mistake repeated half a dozen times either on the same slate, or in the same class, he is justified in concluding that there has been bad teaching; and this experience is sadly too common.

THE WRITING LESSON.

Every writing lesson should be preceded by drill. Of course the children should be in desks: we presume that on no account will the class sit or stand holding slates painfully at all manner of angles against the body, with the bottom left-hand corner thrust into the chest. The slates should have their top edges parallel with the desks,

and they should be set to the right of the writers whose faces should be inclined to the "right quarter turn," and the pencils directed to the right shoulders. Each of these positions should be given by word of command in some such manner as follows:—

Teacher: Writing order "One"—Right quarter turn.

"Two"—Slates in position.

"Three"—Pencils got ready.

The lesson should be begun by the teacher setting the copy on the board, but not *silently, or all at once*. The height and width, the thickness and thinness of the down and up strokes should be pointed out. Otherwise, such characteristic mistakes as the letter *a* made like a *u* with a lid stuck on it, the letter *m* with four instead of three down strokes, etc., will soon be made. The teacher may rest assured that if *several* children are found making these or similar typical mistakes, it is *her* fault not the child's—the class has been ill taught.

The teacher ought not merely to point out mistakes but alter them, and not leave the child till it is able to correct the error.

Characteristic mistakes should also be pointed out on the blackboard as well as individually, and the child should come out to the blackboard to write on it occasionally.

Because this is erroneously thought to be an easy subject to teach, there is too much writing done in all schools; not that the lessons are *too long*, but that *too much* is written. And every time ill-formed letters are made, not only is time wasted, but *bad* writing is being stereotyped in the consciousness of the child. Sir Joshua Reynolds said he could not look on a bad picture without carrying its badness in his eye, and unconsciously reproducing it in

his work. How much more is this the case with the child that not merely *looks* at bad writing but *makes* it! The dictum of the painter, of course, suggests that the teacher's writing on the blackboard should be good; she may write well on paper and yet write ill on a blackboard.

THE ELEMENTS OF GOOD WRITING.—As we have already pointed out, these consist primarily in *legibility*, *neatness*, good *shape* or *form*; *ease* and *rapidity*. Of course the latter will not be sought at first, the great difficulty being rather to make children write sufficiently *slowly*.

The most important consideration of all in teaching writing is, that it is all a *matter of detail*, that good writing means close attention to every *stroke*, *turn*, *loop*, *junction*, *spacing*, *distance*, etc., and that the proper way to get these is to begin in the earliest *stage of infant school life*. In the matter of writing, the Infant School makes or mars the child *for years*.

WRITING FACTORS.—Let us suppose we have begun with a set of copy-books as models. Here we shall have first straight strokes; these will be very difficult for the child to write, though they look so easy to the teacher; and attention will have to be called to—

(1) *The Slope*.—This should be uniform throughout the whole page, throughout the copy-book, and throughout the series. To secure this slope the child should

(a) Have his book very slightly to his right, and the top parallel with the desk.

(b) Have his pen pointed from him.

If the book be too near him, as it is sure to become from time to time unless the teacher constantly prevents it, the writing becomes vertical, and even sloped in the wrong direction or from left to right.

There is nothing more frequently observed in examining Infant Schools than this *bad sloping*. It can be detected immediately on entering the school, for the writing

children will not be with their faces all directed one way, leaving parallel passages diagonally across the class, but will be all in confusion except so far as they are confined to desks.

(2) *The Height and Depth*.—The slates are of course ruled, but it is some time before the children acquire sufficient “muscular sense” to be able to begin and leave off at the right places, viz. on the line. The mistakes made are four—

- (a) Beginning above,
- (b) Short of,
- (c) Ending short of, and
- (d) Below the line.

When the child advances to later stages this question of height and depth in letters of more than “one spacing” becomes more complicated, as some letters, such as *l*, are carried higher than others, such as *t*.

(3) *The Lines and Spaces*.—The lines themselves should be level at the top and bottom, and of equal thickness throughout, without ragged edges, or clear in outline.

The spacing out of the parts of the letters (the distances, for instance, of the separate parts of *m*) should be uniform. The great tendency in all female teachers is to make their *spaces too small* and consequently to make the *curves too flat*. This generally distinguishes girls' writing from that of boys; the latter, as a rule, write in a rounder manner with freer curves.

(4) *The Junctions*, or neat joining of letters with those next to them, should be carefully attended to, and taught from the commencement.

All through copy-writing the great besetting sin of the child is to copy his *own writing*, not the teacher's.

At the earliest stages this can be prevented by not allowing the children to write more than once the copy on the board, when a fresh copy should be set. With a quick

teacher who can rapidly examine work done, this is the best way to teach writing well.

SYLLABUS FOR TEACHING WRITING IN INFANT SCHOOLS.

Theoretically there are many different systems of teaching writing in Infant Schools, while practically juniors are often found teaching on no system at all. The following syllabus may be of use, having for several years been adopted in "*excellent*" Infant Schools. [Where reference has been made to "ages," it is, of course, not meant that age should be the basis of classification in Infant Schools; the term is used for convenience to break up the school into groups].

Stage I.

Ages 3-4.—Straight lines, links, hooks, hook-links, curves, etc.

N.B.—The straight lines should be uniform in slope and thickness; the links, hooks, and curves well rounded, and not angular. Note should be taken of writing drill in all stages, viz.: Body nearly full front; the slate with its top edge parallel with desk, and slightly to right of the body; faces all directed to same point; pencils pointed from right shoulder; with two fingers (not one) on the pencil.

No slates should be in the front of child, still less to left front; otherwise vertical or wrongly sloped writing follows. The left hand should be on the slate; the right arm up to the middle on the desk, not supported from the wrist merely. No pencil less than 4 inches long should be used.

Stage II.

Ages 4-5.—Combination of above elements into letters.

N.B.—Stress should be laid on the proper joining of the letters; equal distances of links, hooks, etc.

The letters should be taught first from their elements. These single elements should be asked for at the examinations. The children should not be crowded.

Stage III.

Ages 5-6.—All the small letters, first in their elements, then as wholes. The script l, b, d, k, h, to reach the upper ruled line; the p, y, j, f, g, q, to reach the lower line on the slates; the t to be half-way between the two lines, the same for the top of the p. This will give plain, neat, and legible non-ornamental writing. After the letters have been learnt, these should be combined into words of simple formation, as man, hat, etc. Occasionally the words should be given on the blackboard in the elemental forms.

N.B.—Stress should be laid on the letters touching the lines; on the shapes made by the children on the slates and the blackboard; on the copies set by the junior teachers. The width of the letters must be uniform, and there should be no *flat backs* to the curves, or sharp angles to the links or hooks.

Stage IV.

Ages 6-7.—All the small letters and capitals beginning with the element common to the script capitals I, T, F, P, B, R; then add the differences to this to make each capital, *one only* at a lesson.

Next take the group containing the element used in common, in script A, N, M. Then give the groups, script S, L; H, K; V, W; D, E, G, J, Y, U, Q, X, Z, each of these to be taught first in its separate elements, then in the combined forms.

In the preceding syllabus the objects kept in view are the following:

(1) The letters are analyzed into their component elements or factors, and are given in groups, in the order

of their difficulty, and so as to teach the likeness and unlikeness of the different letters in the groups.

(2) These are illustrated by proper writing lessons on them, given with the blackboard, and not merely written on the board without explanation.

(3) The first part of the lesson is thus simultaneous, and adapted to large classes. This is succeeded by individual imitation, and examination and correction of the work on the part of the teacher.

In this or any other plan there must be—

(a) Careful examination and correction given to each child.

(b) Encouragement to emulation between the pupils.

(c) A little well done, succeeded by a little more and well done.

(d) A good model on the part of the teacher for the child to imitate; a bad copy on the part of the teacher will be answered by bad writing on the part of the class, and if the Assistant Teacher cannot write well, she should have set lessons to learn to do so. Without this no good will be done.

(e) No mistakes should ever go uncorrected.

(f) Never let the children imitate *their own writing*. Through forgetfulness of this cardinal point, the copy too often becomes more and more ill-written from the top of the page to the bottom, and from the beginning to the end.

MULHÄUSER'S METHOD.

This consists of	1. Analysis	} by the teacher.
	2. Classification	
	3. Synthesis	by the child.

By *Analysis*, the teacher divides the letters into their elements; by *Classification*, she groups letters of similar formation; by *Synthesis* the child combines the factors into letters and words, imitating the teacher's copies.

"The art of writing presents two distinct parts: *first*, the theoretical part, which consists of a rational analysis of the forms of written characters; and *secondly*, the practical, which gives the means of acquiring with rapidity the habit of forming the characters correctly. Generally, attention has been almost entirely confined to the second part, under the impression that it is useless to reason with children, and that they are to be treated as machines, whose office it is to move and not to reflect. Mulhäuser reduces all the elementary characters to four, and from these are produced all the letters of the alphabet."

The four elements thus referred to are—

(1) The right (or straight) line, up and down (thin and thick).

(2) The curved line, from right to left, and left to right, like the brackets of a parenthesis.

(3) The loop, up and down, as of script *j* and *f*.

(4) The crotchet, as on the right of *r*.

According to Mulhäuser the script small letters may be arranged in the order of their simplicity, in which order they should be taught as follows; but of course opinions will slightly differ as to the best order of arrangement:—

(script) *i u t l n m h p' c o e a d q j g y b f r v w k s x z*

Mulhauser gave the following instructions as to writing drill:—

"The slate or paper should be placed a little to the right of the scholar, and parallel with the edge of the desk."

"The left hand should be used to keep the slate or paper steady."

"The pen or pencil should be held between the first two fingers and the thumb, and not held too stiffly; the hand supported on the fourth and fifth fingers, on which it glides from left to right. The pen and pencil should be

pointed in writing to the shoulder, both sides of the nib of the pen pressing equally on the paper."

CAUSES OF FAILURE.

Even when the Head Teacher has introduced the best method of teaching writing, a class often makes little progress, and in these cases the reason is frequently because

(1) The assistant has not paid careful attention to the instructions of the Head Teacher, little real brain power being required either to learn or teach writing; or,

(2) She has not rigidly, perseveringly, and continuously *corrected the exercises* of the children. In the majority of the cases of failure, the latter will be the cause; the children will write so much that they write ill; what is ill written is only perfunctorily corrected by the teacher, and so the child pays no attention to the correction. The order has been issued "go on writing," and the child "goes on," but not *forward*—very often *backward*. In other words, laziness on the part of the teacher has become stereotyped in untidiness on the part of the taught. In such a class an examiner may expect raggedness, looseness, and want of conscientiousness all round; and the child will be the father of the man.

Among the defects most commonly met with in writing are the following :—

(1) The factor on the right of the *r* (the crotchet) is generally ill-shaped, because it is not taught from the blackboard as a separate element.

(2) The *o*, *a*, *g*, *d*, and other script letters made up of *o* in combination with another element, are not begun with an upstroke in the middle of the right hand curve of the letter, but are begun like *u* with a downstroke, and a kind of *lid* is afterwards stuck on.

(3) The stems of the script *b, d, h, k*, are not level with the top line.

(4) The loops are not all of the same width, height, and depth, where they ought to be so.

(5) The writing is not all on or within the lines.

(6) Females almost invariably write with thin flat curves, cramming the letters together.

SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS.

(1) Teach only a few letters at a time; and *never* let much writing be done at a single sitting.

(2) Let the writing be always done on desks—otherwise a corner of the slate held diagonally, is pressed into the pit of the stomach of the writer, and no proper slope is secured.

(3) Have a fixed angle of *slope* throughout the school.

(4) Take care of the *junctions* of the letters.

(5) See that the letters *touch* the lines when required.

(6) Be content with *large* writing even in the top class.

(7) Be chary in the use of transcription (better still, do not make use of it at all except in 1st class). If used, let it be from script, not printed, copies; or ill-formed letters will be the outcome of the imperfectly trained visual consciousness of the child.

(8) Remember that writing draws on the muscular and tactile powers of a child, as well as on the visual nerve centres.

(9) The junior teacher should be called on to give a reason if possible for every violation by a child of the injunctions in the syllabus.

(10) Never let the children erase anything once written.

(11) Be very particular as to position in writing drill.

(12) Cultivate the habit of looking at the writing from

the front, as well as from behind, so as to be able to correct the writing, "upside down."

(13) Teach the formations and combinations of the letters and words from the blackboard; and do not think a "Writing Lesson" is merely setting a copy, and telling the children to "go on."

(14) Let the writing be plain and round (non-ornamental), with short round loops, and no thin emaciated flat backs or angularities; the curve is the "line of beauty."

(15) Constantly revert to the analysis of the letters, on the Mulhäuser plan, using the blackboard for this purpose.

(16) Occasionally use paper or copy-books in the upper sections, as an encouragement to the class.

(17) Never allow the use of short pencils.

Some young teachers may think the foregoing suggestions are trivial, but good writing is a *matter of detail*. This was seen by Locke, who wrote, "The first thing to be taught is to hold the pen (or pencil) right, and this the child should be perfect in before he should be suffered to put it to paper (or slate); for children that would do anything well should never be put upon too much of it at once, or be set to perfect themselves in two parts of an action at the same time if they can possibly be separated. In the next place he should learn how to lay his paper (or slate), and place his arm and body to it."

NOTES OF LESSON ON WRITING BY SECOND YEAR PUPIL TEACHER.

[1st Class, Infants. *Time*—Fifteen minutes for class and individual instruction from blackboard.]

I. WRITING DRILL.—See that all the class sits at the desks in proper position under word of command,

"One," or "Right quarter turn;" "Two," or "Slates" (all on *desk*, not on arm); "Three," or "Pencils." ⁽¹⁾

II. WRITING COPY.—Let the copy be *rmognp*. Here the children will not be able to retain the whole word in visual memory. Write one letter at a time, calling attention to the elements of each (stroke, turn, loops, etc.), and the junction, height, and depth, spacing, up and down stroke; split up *r* into two components, and write these separately above the word. ⁽²⁾

III. CORRECTION.—The teacher then goes in and among the class to make individual corrections—

- (1) Of holding the pencil.
- (2) Of position of slate.
- (3) Of posture of body. ⁽³⁾
- (4) No short pencils allowed.
- (5) No transgressing top and bottom lines.
- (6) No thick up strokes.
- (7) No faulty shapes.
- (8) No faulty junctions.
- (9) No faulty spacings.
- (10) Proper height and depth.
- (11) No flat curves.
- (12) No cramped writing.

The errors must not only be pointed out individually, but *corrected* by the teacher, and not left till corrected by the *pupil*. ⁽⁴⁾ It is a good plan to let each child *stand* as it finishes the word each time, holding up the slate; this limits the number claiming attention.

METHOD.

- (¹) Each of these orders to be obeyed simultaneously. At "Slates!" all place these to right of body, with top edge parallel with desks. At "Pencils!" all take up, point to

the right, with two fingers towards the bottom, *not too near the point.*

- (2) Let a child come out and write beneath the word a copy of it on the blackboard, in Mulhäuser's horizontal and inclined spacing lines.
- (3) Do not let the head rest on the left arm.
- (4) The teacher will have to be very nimble to attend to all.

REMARKS OF H.M.'S INSPECTORS ON WRITING.

"I always encourage the use of a bold style in an Infant Class. Slates badly ruled, or ruled without reference to the classes which are to use them, pointless fragments of slate pencils, might and should be always avoided."—MR. BALMER.

"The character of the child's writing depends on the teacher; there are, of course, exceptions to the rule."—MR. BAYLE.

"Posture at the desk, and the handling of the pen" (*pencil*) "are two points which are very largely neglected."—MR. EDWARDS.

"A suitable course of oral teaching, combined with a judicious use of the blackboard, should always occupy a prominent place in the writing lesson."—MR. BECK.

"Infants should be taught to write large, and should not be allowed to scrawl a thing many times over incorrectly. The teacher should see them form a letter, element by element, and should check a fault in any element at once before going to the next."—MR. TURNBULL.

"The forming of the letters into groups, having the same elementary lines and curves, would ensure greater correctness of form. Letters should also be dissected, and their formation pointed out on the blackboard."—MR. JOLLY.

"I have seldom found the writing in a school good unless the children had been habituated from the beginning to write within lines on their slates."—MR. WILLIAMS.

"Wherever there is a general and decided weakness in writing, it is found to be the result of careless supervision, and of the want of systematic class teaching."—MR. HARRISON.

"In many schools the handwriting is excellent, teachers having adopted a system of teaching large bold hand from the time the children enter the school as infants. Children should not let their second finger come below the holders."—MR. C. WILLIAMS.

GOVERNMENT QUESTIONS ON WRITING (SCHOLARSHIP).

1. What elements are common to the written letters, *p*, *q*, *h*, *g*, *d*, *y*? In what order and in what combinations would you teach these elements to infants?
2. What are the first lessons in writing that you would give to young children?
3. Describe first lessons in penmanship. What must receive chief attention? State clearly the method by which writing should be taught to infants. On what principle should letters be grouped together, and in what sequence should they be taken?
4. Arrange the small written letters according to elementary formation.
5. Explain briefly Mulhäuser's System.
6. What use would you make of the blackboard for teaching writing? In what classes would you use it?
7. What are the chief and commonest faults in writing to which the teacher should direct her attention?
8. Arrange the following words in order according to

the difficulty of writing they present to beginners, and give your reasons:—man, mat, mamma, mask, mast, men, meat, mend, mane, most, mind.

9. What are the important points to be attended to in teaching children to write?

10. What is the use of learning to write when learning to read?

11. How do you conduct a dictation lesson?

12. For what number of children were desks provided in your school? Describe the desks used, and state how much space was allowed to each child for writing.

13. By what rules would you be guided in selecting the extracts for transcription?

CHAPTER IV.

ARITHMETIC.

THIS is certainly the most exacting subject to the teacher of an Infant School, and the most mentally fatiguing to the class. The lessons should therefore be very short, as the children require to be mentally apprehensive and nimble to work profitably at it. Perhaps the experience of the writer may be of some use to the junior reader in this difficult matter. Some years ago it was found that the Arithmetic of several schools under his supervision was done by "counting" on the fingers. Gradually counting on the fingers has been eliminated, except from the lowest classes, with a manifest improvement in quickness and accuracy.

The great point to be kept constantly in mind is to build up *slowly from the concrete*. To this end reference should be constantly made in the youngest classes to actual objects (balls, sticks, marbles, bobbins, cubes, beads, etc.), so as to give visible representatives of the meaning of 1 and 1 are 2; 1 and 2 are 3; 2 and 2 are 4; 2 and 3 are 5. Next the visible and tangible objects of reference should be laid aside; and, instead, objects in the room (panes in a window, desks in a class, figures on the clock-face, strokes on the blackboard, etc.) should be used.

At this stage and upwards, the excellent typical representatives of numbers up to 9, figured in Sonnenschein's

"Number Sheets" may be used. Succeeding these exercises should be those in pure abstract numbers in Addition and Subtraction; and in finding the half, quarter, and three-quarters of easily divided quantities. The use of coins in market transactions within the compass of a shilling; and of the foot-rule and yard-tape in actual measurements in the schoolroom, has also been found of service. [Here the general remark may be made, that nothing is in these pages recommended to the young teacher which has not been actually tested by experience and found within the reach of practical possibility.] No other exercise in the Infant School strengthens so much as Arithmetic the reasoning powers of the child (it is the "Logic of the Infant School"); no other leads so well to habits of accuracy and nimbleness of mind. The Arithmetic (with the Object Lesson) is therefore a good test of the general intelligence of the teacher and of the taught, in the Infant Department, at least.

Concrete Representation.

The power of abstraction is only gained after a time by practice in nations and individuals, and then only to a limited extent; thus Captain Burton says, "The Negroes on the Western coast of Africa cannot count up higher than from six to ten without use of counters."

A little child knows nothing at first of the abstract 1, 2, 3, etc., i.e. of unity, duality, trinity, etc., except after repeated experiences of the concrete. At the earliest stages, then, our first duty is to teach what is meant by one, two, etc. At first this should be done by constant appeal to the sight only, or to a picture; as soon as the teacher appeals to the memory of the absent counter, abstraction is employed. Number cards deal with this matter, giving pictures of concrete numbers.

- | | | |
|---------------------|------------|---------------------------|
| { 1—Unicorn's horn. | { 2—Eyes. | { 3—Three-legged stool. |
| { 1—Nose. | { 2—Ears. | { 3—Triangle, meat-stand. |
| { 1—Head. | { 2—Hands. | { 3—Easel. |

4—Window frame ; window, slate, book, fingers, legs of animals, chair legs.

5—Fingers, crab, toes, pentagon.

6—Hexagon, cube, or box.

7—Heptagon—Charles' Wain.

8—Fingers and toes without thumbs and great toes.

9—Nonagon, nine-pins.

10—All fingers and toes, and crab.

These numbers are thus associated with a concrete representation, next with different colours and arrangements ; two can be represented as one and one ; three as one and one and one, or as two and one ; four as one and one and one and one, or as two and one and one, or as two and two, or as three and one ; and so on ; the complexity of course increasing. The time spent in these exercises will be well spent.

Then exercises should be given in addition of concrete objects of the *same kind*, as the legs of two chairs, three panes and four panes, six marbles and three marbles, and so on, the total sum at this stage not going beyond 10. After this, marks, lines, or dots to the same limit may be added up on the blackboard ; and finally abstract numbers given in dictation may be added mentally and from the blackboard in class. In this last stage great patience and thoroughness will be required, and immense care must be taken lest the brighter children alone do the work. The latter point will be the chief difficulty of the teacher at this stage.

By Arithmetic we secure *neatness* and *accuracy* both in mental processes and in writing ; to secure these Arithmetic should be done as soon as possible on *paper*. Arithmetic should also secure rapidity of thought, nimbleness of apprehension, and quickness of expression of results.

To bring this about, a large amount of Mental Arithmetic should be taught from the very first stages. The practical Arithmetic of daily life, of the poor at least, is chiefly mental; for the butcher's, baker's shops, etc. Arithmetic should be the subject in an Infant School to make it lively, intelligent, nimble, and apprehensive.

One of the most striking things in a teacher's work in the earliest stage is the *initial* difficulty of giving an infant notions of number. The utmost caution is required never to go on adding or subtracting one step beyond the power of the child. If once the thread is lost, the child drifts and becomes a guessing machine; the teacher should, in spite of monotony, persist with $1 + 1 = 2$, $1 + 2 = 3$, etc., until this has become not merely *verbally*, but *practically* known to the child. Experience teaches that if this careful graduation accompanied by constant appeal to the visual be persisted in, no counting on fingers will be needed in the upper classes in Infant Schools.

The Infant Teacher should remember that while girls generally read better than boys of the same age, the latter are quicker at the Arithmetic, and being less shy, proclaim their readiness the sooner. Special attention should, therefore, be given to the girls in this subject; these should be called upon the more frequently for answers to questions, and should be helped more in the processes. This can be done without keeping the boys behind, by giving the easier problems to the girls, and specially hard ones to the boys. In fact, a good teacher will divide her mind in this respect into as many parts as her class is divided into, and give problems exactly suited to the capacity and power of each individual in it. Nothing, on the contrary, is more common than to note a weak teacher of a mixed class of infants, letting all the problems be solved by half a dozen sharp boys, while the rest of the children have fallen into a state of mental idleness.

If the subject be well taught, and especial care given to the graduation of the examples, the first class in an Infant School can take down on slates, add up, and subtract (without borrowing) numbers as high as 999.

TABLES.

In teaching the multiplication tables, it is a good plan to let these be *sung to a marching tune*; such should end at the middle of the table (extending over six lines out of the twelve), and the tables can be sung backwards from 6×12 to 2×1 . Generally speaking the multiplication tables are made to begin with 2×1 are 2. But in doing multiplication sums we require also to multiply by 0 and by 1. It is a good plan, therefore, to add the following to the tables—

0 times 1 are 0	1 times 0 are 0
0 times 2 are 0, etc.	1 times 1 are 1, etc.

The first of these two is particularly useful, as it will be found that it is here most mistakes are made by children in multiplying, it being very common to say 0 times 1 are 1, etc., in later years.

There is a special error made by children in Subtraction: led by the jingle of sound, they frequently say 1 from 1 leaves 1, 2 from 2 leaves 2, 3 from 3 leaves 3, etc. This should be specially looked out for and checked by the teacher.

It is also to be noted that in Addition children can add a small number to a large one much more readily than they can add the large number to the smaller, as 4 and 8 less easily than 8 and 4. To overcome this difficulty the teacher should constantly practise the inversion of the numbers, thus 8 and 4 are 12, should be succeeded by 4 and 8 are 12, 4 from 12 leaves 8, and 8 from 12 leaves 4. Again, it is a bad habit in adding up more than two

numbers to use needless repetitions, as $8 + 4 + 7$, is 8 and 4 are 12, 12 and 7 are 19. It is just as easy to say 8, 12, 19. This becomes a very important matter when in actual business life large columns of figures have to be added.

SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS.

(1) Be content to labour for a year in the Babies' room with 1, 2, 3, and the additions and subtractions derived from these numbers.

(2) Use the *concrete alone* in the Babies' room.

(3) Proceed gradually from the *tangible* concrete, to the *visible* concrete; and thence to the occasional use of the pure abstract.

(4) Do not let a few "sharp" children run away with the class; keep these *ad referendum*, but give most of the exercises to the duller children.

(5) *Rigidly check "guessing."* In correcting, therefore, do not "tell," but show wherein an error consists.

(6) Avoid reference to the mysteries of decimal notation, except so far as units and tens are concerned. (Junior Teachers themselves rarely understand these mysteries, about which they often fluently talk.) Better still, keep within the compass of 99, and let these quantities be regarded as wholes, as in the numbers of the pages of a book, or of a house. The Infant School is not the proper place for dealing with decimal notation.

(7) Constantly appeal to the concrete in the lower stages, and to the blackboard in the higher, when difficulties arise in dealing with the abstract.

(8) Let most of the Arithmetic be mental, and confine slate Arithmetic to the top class or (in large Infant Schools) to the first two classes (6-7 year-old children).

(9) *Cultivate your own inventiveness*, so as to create new combinations to fix the attention of the children. Each

teacher should have a manuscript book of typical representative questions in the concrete to which she can appeal, and to which, from time to time, she can add other examples. This could be made, at first, by selecting *one example* of each kind, out of the various text books on Mental Arithmetic. Children soon weary of the monotonous, "How-many-legs-have-two-cows-got?"

The following *types* of Mental Arithmetic questions may be useful to the Junior Teacher, from which she can frame similar questions:—

1. How many fingers have you on 2 hands?
2. What part of 4 is 2?
3. What is the half of 4?
4. What is twice 4?
5. How many toes has a one-legged man?
6. How many eyes have 6 boys?
7. How many sixes are there in 12?
8. What change will a boy have out of 6*d.* after paying his school money?
9. What figures stand for 20?
10. What do 9 0 stand for?
11. A boy had 12 marbles and lost 6; how many has he left?
12. How many pence, half-pence, farthings, in 6*d.*, 8*d.*, etc., up to 1*s.*?
13. How many feet, inches, in a yard?
14. How many farthings, half-pence, in 1½*d.*, 2½*d.*, 3½*d.*, etc., up to 11½*d.*?
15. How many halves, quarters, in 1, 2, 3, etc.; ditto, for 1½*d.*, 2½*d.*, etc.?
16. How many days in a week? What will 2*d.* a day be for a week?
17. How many desks in 2 classes, with 4 in a class?
18. How many panes in a window with 3 rows, and 3 in a row?

19. How many strokes does the clock strike if it strikes (1, 2, 3), (2, 3, 4), (3, 4, 5), etc. ?
20. How much is 13 greater than 9 ?
21. What is the difference between 16 and 11 ?
22. If 2 boys had 6 marbles each, and one lost 2 to the other; how many had each then ?
23. Five twos and take away one ?
24. Which cost more, 3 cakes at $4d.$ each, or 2 at $5d.$?
25. If a reading book cost $7d.$, what will 2 cost ?
26. What is left out of $1s.$, after spending $4\frac{1}{2}d.$?
27. I bought something which cost $7\frac{1}{2}d.$, and had only $6d.$ to pay with; how much was I short ?
28. What part of $1s.$ is $4d.$?
29. How many $3d.$, $4d.$ pieces in $1s.$?
30. Let "Tommy" come out and measure this desk with a foot-rule: with yard tape.
31. There are 19 boys in one class and 15 in another; how many more in one than in the other ?
32. There are 11 boys and 7 girls in the class; how many children altogether ?
33. There are 17 boys in a class and 4 were late; how many were early ?
34. We have read from page 15 to 19; how many pages is that ?
35. How many corners, sides, edges, to a cube ?
36. How many sides to 2, 3, 4 triangles ?
37. How many corners to 3, 4, 5 squares ?
38. What is the next greater, lesser, number to 19 ?
39. What is $\frac{1}{4}$ of 12 ?
40. Share $1s.$ among 6 boys.
41. How many inches in a quarter of a yard ?
- (10) Let each class have for part of its apparatus, some farthings, half-pence, pence, a silver $3d.$, $4d.$, $6d.$, and $1s.$ piece, a foot-rule, and a yard tape.
- (11) Be prepared for a few children being persistently

weak in the "power of number," and treat them patiently.

(12) Avoid reference to hundreds of thousands.

(13) Let "Tables" be subsidiary to mental processes, as only referring to mere verbal memory, whereas you are required to cultivate reasoning powers. Let such Tables be taught in combination with school tunes, and these should be marching tunes of a cheerful character.

(14) Do not teach the numbers from 1 up to 100 (this consecutive order will be gradually and unconsciously acquired at a later date); but teach those numbers only (1 to 3 in Babies' room) which are going to be *used*. As in letters, so in numbers, the essence is in the use and application; not in the mere names.

(15) *Check counting on the fingers* in the upper classes. This is an evil habit which otherwise is persisted in up to Standard IV. in the upper departments, especially with girls.

(16) Incidentally, but constantly, teach "Number" in the Object and Kinder-garten Lessons, and give a few exercises in Mental Arithmetic at all odd spare moments, when the class would be otherwise idle (because of other class arrangements.)

(17) Do not strain the mental powers of the child by dealing with too large, or too complicated, quantities. Aim rather at quickness and accuracy, by means of lower and simpler combinations.

[“Principles will, of course, be taught most effectively by means of the very simplest numbers, and there should be no hurry to leave these simple exercises until they have been well mastered. Numbers up to 10 will then present little or no difficulty.”—MR. FUSSELL.]

“Lessons on ‘Number’ should be short and interesting, the principles and relations involved should be taught by means of the very simplest examples,

and the Exercises should be such as the children may work without any undue strain upon their powers. Free use should be made of concrete examples."

(18) Show the meaning of $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, by reference to sticks, strings, and round and rectangular figures on the black-board.

REMARKS OF H.M.'S INSPECTORS ON ARITHMETIC.

"Counting on the fingers instead of adding is a very prevalent fault in the upper departments, and almost impossible to suppress. The Infant Schools for the most part teach children thus at first, and the upper schools find the habit hard to eradicate, and in many cases take no pains to do so."—MR. SYNGE.

"Mental calculations of all sorts seem to be too much neglected, and the younger children are allowed and taught to add and subtract by means of their fingers, which is a very mechanical and unintelligent method, and which I do my best to stop."—MR. WILLIAMS.

"Much of the success attained is due to early acquaintance with mental processes of reckoning, to the exclusion of all such mechanical devices as counting by strokes and by fingers. Judicious use of the ball frame and other concrete objects which the child does not carry about with it, is soon supplemented by first ideas upon mental addition; tables have to be said in every direction, and rapid neat work is encouraged."—MR. BAREINGTON-WARD.

GOVERNMENT QUESTIONS ON ARITHMETIC (SCHOLARSHIP).

1. How would you commence teaching Arithmetic in an Infant School; and how far do you think children under seven may be expected to go in learning Arithmetic?

2. Describe the best methods by which to teach number to very little children.
3. Describe first lessons in Arithmetic.
4. How will you teach children to write down numbers correctly?
5. Distinguish between numeration and notation, and give your method of teaching them.
6. In learning the Multiplication table, which products do children most commonly find most difficult in committing to memory? Account for some of the most difficult cases.
7. What use do you make of the blackboard in Arithmetic?
8. Draw up notes for an introductory lesson on Addition for the top class of an Infant School.
9. By what method should the teaching of simple exercises in Fractions to Infants be conducted? Give reasons for your answer.
10. What means must be adopted to secure an intelligent and rapid progress in teaching Arithmetic to Infants?

CHAPTER V.

COLLECTIVE LESSONS.

"II. SIMPLE LESSONS ON OBJECTS, and on the phenomena of Nature, and of common life." (Revised Code, 1883.)

These are described in the Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors as a "regular course of *conversational* lessons on objects, and on the facts of natural history."

This is the second class of subjects upon which the Merit Grant depends, and naturally divides itself into three sections.

(1) SIMPLE LESSONS ON OBJECTS.—The objects selected should be such as fall within the actual observation of a child for the most part; and should include—

(a) *Domestic Animals.*

(b) Some of the more common *Plants.*

(c) Some of the best known *Metals* and *Minerals.*

In the upper section some *foreign* animals might also be dealt with, but only after the domestic animals have given the class *types* as means of appeal from the known to the unknown.

In selecting the animals care should be taken by the teacher that bloodthirsty instincts are silently passed over. These propensities have their use in the economy of nature, but the teacher should aim at cultivating the gentle emotions by reference in animals to love of off-

spring, ingenuity in construction of abodes or overcoming obstacles, patience in distress or difficulty, kindly aid to other animals, habits of industry, etc., so far as any or all of these are manifested by the "lower creatures." To this end each lesson might conclude with a short anecdote illustrative of these. (*Vide* "Notes of Lessons for Infants.") The teacher will, of course, note that these lessons are "conversational," but the subject matter should at the same time be orderly in arrangement, and accurate in statement.

ANIMALS.

(a) Pictures of the animals should, of course, accompany the lessons, and these should be large and striking, and so well executed that they may be used as ornaments for the walls. Among the best are Keith Johnston's (from the German), and the Natural Society's and Partridge's Natural History Rolls. Reject those with scientific disquisitions at the foot, as to the orders, genera, etc. A sheet of "Comparative Sizes of Animals" will be also found useful on the wall.

Among the foreign animals should be included Elephant, Lion, Tiger, Whale, Bear, Deer, Fox, Wolf, etc.

PLANTS.

(b) The *Plants* selected for lessons should vary with the season; and actual specimens, in a living state, should be made use of. Among the best are the Buttercup, Primrose, Wallflower, Daisy, Grass, Wheat, Barley, Oats, Potato, Pea, Bean, etc.

Very slight references should be made to manufactures, and none as to the *mode* of the manufacture.

MINERALS.

(c) The *Minerals* should include the best known metals (Gold, Silver, Copper, Iron, Lead, etc.) and rocks (Sandstone, Limestone, Chalk, Clay, etc.) and earths; with Coal, which should have special attention.

SCHOOL MUSEUM.

In these lessons actual specimens (sold in "Object Lesson Boxes," or, better still, collected by the teacher) should be used in illustration. The latter are easily collected, and, though not so nice to look at as those specially prepared, are really more valuable for purposes of illustration. They should include a lump of chalk in the rough, a piece of coal, a little sand, a boulder, clay, lead ore, brick, a piece of pottery, lime, etc.

In the statement of what makes an "Excellent School" in the opinion of the Department "an orderly collection of simple objects and apparatus adapted to illustrate the school lessons," is mentioned. (Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors.)

The following hints as to the proper kinds of objects to collect, and the manner of keeping them, may be useful:—

The objects should be kept in a cupboard, between the ordinary shelves of which sliding shelves are inserted on slats, the whole being subdivided into compartments by cross pieces of wood. The parallel slats for subdivision should be about three inches asunder, dividing each shelf into compartments of that size. Pill boxes and small glass bottles will be found useful for small objects and those in powder and liquid.

Among the objects collected might be included—

Wheat—Ear; with piece of straw plaiting; straw paper; small picture-frame of straw made by teacher.

Also small biscuit ; stick of macaroni ; starch.

In country schools the whole subject of wheat cultivation should be dealt with in top class Infants (ploughing ; sowing seed ; hoeing ; reaping ; carrying, etc.).

Barley, ear of ; Barley-meal in pill-box, or small bottle ; pearl barley.

Oats, ear of ; Oatcake ; oatmeal.

Potato—(flower and berry, in season) ; starch ; gum.

Coal—Cinder ; coke ; pipe, clay, and coal-dust (to make gas in fire before the class) ; one of the aniline dyes in bottle ; paraffin, liquid and solid.

Chalk—Flint ; limestone ; lime ; mortar ; coloured chalks.

Glass—Bottle glass ; window glass ; spun glass (cheap blown glass instruments can be bought at about one shilling per dozen in towns) ; flint ; sand.

Lead-ore—Lead ; pipe-head to melt ; small lead piping and rolled lead.

Pebble—Rough, rounded ; gravel ; sand.

Slate—Rough unhewn fragment ; piece of school slate ; roofing slate ; slate pencil.

Clay—Tile ; broken brick ; potsherd ; china.

Soap—Cubes of yellow, mottled, and toilet soaps ; soda.

Toy Ship—full-rigged, with masts, sails, yards.

Toy Railway Train, with engine, carriage, etc. These can be bought for one shilling (see advertisements in daily papers).

Doll's Shoes.

Doll's Socks.

Doll's Frock.

Silk—Silk caterpillar's egg ; floss silk ; spun silk ; woven silk ; dyed silk ; ribbon.

Calico—Cotton wool (raw cotton) ; cotton seeds ; cotton cake ; cotton thread ; bleached and unbleached and printed calico.

Feather—Quill pen ; down.

Toy Clock or Watch—with moveable fingers.

Paper—Rags; rope; brown paper; coloured papers (Kinder-garten strips).

Leather—Sheep-skin; upper leather; sole leather; finger of glove; book cover; oak bark; strap.

Wool—Sheep's; flannel; cloth; worsted; merino; toy baby's woollen sock.

Pin and Needle—Pin wire; paper of pins.

In the preceding list of objects suitable to illustrate lessons on Common Things, and within easy reach of the teacher, it will be noted that there are natural groups, as of—

(a) *Plants*—Wheat, Barley, etc.

(b) *Minerals*—Coal, Chalk, etc.

(c) *Manufactures*—Calico, Leather, etc.

(d) *Babies' Toys*—Doll's Shoes, Socks, etc.

As a guide to the young teacher, a model lesson in each of these four sections will be now given. These will be given in different forms to serve as types for the rest.

CONVERSATIONAL MODEL LESSON ON WHEAT: TOP CLASS.

[*Apparatus*: Blackboard; pictures (in book or on wall-card) of ploughing, sowing, hoeing, reaping, carrying, and threshing corn; handful of ears of wheat; little flour, bran, and chaff; and bread.]

Teacher.—What is this I have in my hand?—Bread. Where do we get bread from?—Baker's shop. What does the baker make bread out of?—Flour and water. Yes; he mixes the flour and water into a paste, and calls it dough. This he bakes in the oven. Who has seen mother make bread? But where did the flour come from? [The class will not be able to answer this]. Well, the miller brought it in his cart. The miller buys wheat and grinds

it in his mill. That turns the wheat into flour and bran; he sells the bran for the pig, and the flour to make bread.

But where did the wheat come from? It grew in the field. First men put grains of wheat into the ground: these grow up like grass; then the ear grows at the top; the hot sun shines in the summer and dries up and ripens the ear. Then the wheat is cut down.

The long stalk is called straw, and it is used to thatch houses, for the pigs and horses to lie on, to make straw hats and other things.

The lot, straw and wheat together, are threshed out by a man with a flail, or else with a machine, and the grain is thus parted from the straw. This is put in bags, and stored up in the barn or granary, or taken off by Dobbin to the miller, or to the town. This is the wheat which is made into flour and bread.

METHOD.—In giving this conversational lesson, the information should as much as possible be drawn from the children themselves. They should be encouraged to express themselves; and allowed to handle the wheat, etc., and point out its properties.

A moral lesson might fitly here be introduced, to teach gratitude to God for His sunshine and rain and the fruits of the harvest; and the whole might conclude with the teacher repeating and the class learning one or two verses of children's poetry, on Corn; or the Harvest Field; or some subject closely allied to the lesson.

MODEL LESSON ON SILK: TOP CLASS.

Subject Matter.

[The teacher may draw up from this her own "Notes."]

Walking in the garden I saw a creeping, soft, long, round thing with short "legs," eating leaves as fast as it could. This was a *Caterpillar*. I brought it home, and

put it in a box, and after a time it began to change and dry up. It lay quite still, as if dead, for a long time; then it began to move inside its case. It stretched itself and burst its case, and came out a "butterfly."

One kind of these "caterpillars" spins silk. (Teacher shows one of the "caterpillars," if possible; and some floss silk. They are easily kept and fed in a school, and give subjects for several of the very nicest lessons.) This silk is soft, fine, yellow, and glossy. A lot of it together makes silk thread, and out of this men make dresses, ribbons, etc. The teacher should refer to any article of silk worn in the class or by herself.

METHOD.—The teacher should carefully avoid that usual quicksand to young instructors in Infant Schools; viz. attempting to give an idea of *modes of manufacture*. These infants cannot possibly be made to understand these, and in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the teachers themselves do not understand them. It will be quite sufficient to state that the material *is made into the dress*, etc.

MODEL TALK ON A DOLL'S SHOES: BABIES' ROOM.

Number.—What has Dolly got on her little toes and feet?—A pair of shoes. Yes; now let all the class say after teacher, "Dolly has a pair of shoes." What nice little shoes they are! soft and warm, and pretty, too. Not half so big as mine; but Dolly is only a little lady, and so she has only little feet. Let us count up her feet. How many has she got?—One; two. Yes; two feet, and two hands, and two eyes.

Colour.—What a pretty colour Dolly's shoes are! Red and white (or blue and white, etc.). What else has she got on that is red (blue, etc.)? What other white thing has she got on? Who has got on something red in the class?

Form.—Let us take Dolly's shoes off. Aren't they pretty? Now I will put them on my fingers. What do we wear on our fingers?—Gloves. Put them on again. Now, see what a *round* leg Dolly has; and the shoes are round, too, at the top. But they are *flat* at the bottom because Dolly has to walk on the ground. Who will come and walk up to Dolly? We can walk on the floor because our feet are flat; we should tumble if they were not so.

Now let us wrap up Dolly, and put her in the cradle to go to sleep. While she is asleep we will sing about "Dolly."

MODEL LESSON ON IRON: TOP CLASS.

- I. INTRODUCTION.—What iron is. Draw attention to fire-grate; fender; rail; knife; fork; clothes-iron; saucepan.⁽¹⁾
- II. PROPERTIES.—*Will not burn or melt easily*, hence use in grate, saucepan, etc.⁽²⁾
Hard; so used for cutting (knife), and things that will not easily break (poker, saucepan, hammer, etc.).
Soon heated ⁽³⁾; so useful for clothes-iron, saucepan, etc.
- III. WHERE GOT.—Iron ore, in mine, dug out by *miners*, with pickaxe, shovel, wheelbarrow; melted in furnace ⁽⁴⁾, with coal and lime: this is cast iron (pig iron).⁽⁵⁾

METHOD.

- ⁽¹⁾ Point to such objects as are in schoolroom.
- ⁽²⁾ Show piece to class.
- ⁽³⁾ Heat iron wire in fire.
- ⁽⁴⁾ Draw sketch of mine and furnace on board.
- ⁽⁵⁾ Recapitulate and question.

(2) **THE PHENOMENA OF NATURE.**—These should include Day and Night (without reference to astronomical laws), the Sun, Moon, Stars; the Earth; a Lake (illustrated by a neighbouring pond, or an artificial one made by the teacher), River, Canal, Sea (on the sea-coast), a Harbour, Hill, Rain, Snow, Wind, the Seasons, etc. Lessons on these cannot generally be accompanied by diagrams, and the teacher must therefore merely appeal to the child's own observation, and encourage the cultivation of this valuable faculty.

This section will be found by the Junior Teacher the most difficult of all the work of an Infant School. This will be partly because the children themselves are so young, and their intellectual powers as yet so little developed. This the teacher will, doubtless, recognize at once, but may be inclined to doubt the writer when he asserts that the difficulty is still greater owing to the want of knowledge of the teacher herself.

Thus it is in this section that Infant Teachers generally set down lessons on Rain, Snow, Dew, Hail, etc., and yet not one teacher in a hundred really understands how and why dew is deposited, while the origin and formation of hail is a controverted point among physicists themselves.

This being the case, we would earnestly warn the teacher not to attempt too much; though we know that nineteen out of twenty will do so after the caution. Because it is a common experience that it rains, snows, etc., we are too apt to jump at the conclusion that we understand the phenomena in virtue of their commonness.

As a guide in this matter, we will sketch out a few lessons in this department, and for the sake of variety cast them in a different mould from any used before in this work.

DAY AND NIGHT.

[*T.* = *Teacher* ; *C.* = *Class*. The lesson is conversational.
Top Class.]

T. When do you go to bed, children ?

C. At night.

T. If you were to wake up in the night, how would you know that it was "in the night" ?

C. It would be dark, teacher.

T. Why is it not dark in the day-time, then ?

C. Because the sun is shining.

T. How do you know that it is the sun that makes the day light ?

C. Because you can't look at the sun ; it is so bright and shining.

T. Yes ; in the morning the sun rises up in the sky, and gets higher and higher till dinner-time, and then it is nearly over our heads. After dinner it gets lower and lower, and at last goes quite out of sight. Who has seen the sun quite low down, as if it were on the ground ?

C. I have, teacher.

T. Well, in the night-time the sun has gone quite away, and we can't see it. And then it grows dark, and the moon shines sometimes, and the stars. When is it warmer—in the day-time or in the night ?

C. In the day.

T. How do you feel when the sun shines on you ?

C. Warm.

T. Would you be so warm if you got "out of the sun" ?

C. No, teacher.

T. Then, it is the sun that makes you warm. So the sun does two things for us : it gives us light, and makes

us warm. Can you get warm in any other way, besides getting "into the sun"?

C. Yes, teacher. Before the fire.

T. Then the sun is like a great fire. And can you get any light when the sun has gone away?

C. Yes, teacher.

T. What will give you light, then?

C. The lamp; the gas.

T. So we have learnt, then, two things, that I will put down on the board.

Blackboard Sketch.

The SUN gives us *Light*.

The SUN makes us *Warm*.

The *Sun* is like a LAMP, and like a FIRE.

N.B. The inexperienced teacher must not think that this amount of knowledge is too small. It is enough for a lesson; to attempt to give more would really give less.

["Sometimes the half is more than the whole."—
HESIOD.]

Moreover, the class has been taught to *think* and *speak*.

We will next take a "Geographical" type of lesson.

A RIVER.

T. When I went out the other day, I was obliged to take an umbrella. What was that for?

C. Because it rained, teacher.

T. And where did the rain come from?

C. Out of the sky.

T. The rain ran down into the gutter; and when I threw some little bits of paper in the gutter, the rain washed them away. Which way did the water go, up the street or down the street?

C. Down the street.

T. That is right; *water always run down-hill*. If, then, the rain comes down on the top of a hill, what will it do?

C. Run down the hill.

T. That is right, except that some of it will sink into the ground. If I go out into the fields, I find there is a ditch at one side: what shall I find in the ditch after it has been raining?

C. Some water.

T. I dare say you think that the water always keeps in the ditch. But if I throw some little bits of paper into the water in the ditch, I find the paper moves along. What makes the paper move?

C. Don't know.

T. What made the paper move in the gutter?

C. The rain carried it away.

T. Yes; and the water in the ditch carried the paper away too, only it did not move so fast as in the gutter. So the water in the ditch moves. Which way did we say the water always moved?

C. Down-hill.

T. Then the water in the ditch moved down-hill too, only slowly. When water moves like that we call it a stream; and the stream is a little river—so we may call it a baby river. Which is bigger, a stream or a river?

C. A river.

T. Then we may call a river a big stream. And we may say a river is water moving down-hill. We will write this on the blackboard.

A RIVER.

A River is a large Stream.

A Stream is a little River.

A River always moves down-hill.

A Stream always moves down-hill.

Show the class a picture of a river.

(3) **THE PHENOMENA OF COMMON LIFE**—These should include the description, parts, contents, and uses of objects in the House, Kitchen, Bedroom, Garden, Street, Farm-yard, Field, Town, Village, School, Church or Chapel, a Bird's Nest, Clothing, Food, Trades (especially Tailors, Blacksmiths, Shoemakers, Policemen, Bakers, Carpenters), Lighting a Fire, Making a Bed.

The phenomena of common life should in the Babies' Room certainly include those of home life, and notably of child life, especially—

(a) The use of toys, namely sets of "tea things," consisting of cups and saucers, toy teapots, sugar-basins, milk-jugs, and spoons; miniature tables, tea-trays, and table-cloths. These can be cheaply procured at educational depôts and ordinary toy shops; and their use leads to order, neatness, nimble manipulation, and the education of fingers and thumbs.

(b) Short tales to train the attention, form the affections, to show the beauty of goodness, specially of obedience and kindness to others. These should be accompanied and illustrated by pictures, containing little plot, and with "morals" obvious without any verbal assertion.

(c) Short songs of a nursery character, in which the jingle-jangle of rhyme, and the demand on imagination

should be the main attraction. As many of these as possible should consist of "action songs," and the teacher should herself conscientiously but cheerfully go through all the movements in front of the class. In the choice of the school songs the diction should be considered; but this may be more difficult than the ordinary language of an infant. The general sense of a passage orally learnt may be caught when the meaning of individual words is beyond the grasp of the child. The main reason why nursery tales and rhymes in all countries at all times have become so generally popular, is because of their appeals to the imagination, to the grotesque, and the ludicrous even; and the faculty of appreciation of these in the child may be made an important element in its education, if not in its instruction. On the other hand, nothing of a "hobgoblin" character should be introduced, and references to wickedness or cruelty should be carefully avoided.

In the same connection infant recitations should be made of use—to train the auditory memory, and give expression.

A very pleasing "amusement" for babies, is to teach them to fold up a portion of their pinafores into the form of a doll, and to nurse this upon the arm as if it were a baby, the teacher pointing out in doing so that "baby" must not be dropped on the floor, and must be soothed against the breast, hushed to sleep, etc., etc. Children are very imitative, and though some of the class will be sullen and refuse at first to do what is bidden, the sympathy of numbers invariably prevails at the last, and even the sulky at last cannot resist the sense of power and delight in doing what others do.

NOTES OF LESSONS.

In all alike "Notes of Lessons" should be carefully drawn up, but the teacher should be prepared to teach

without these in her hand. The proper function of the "Notes" is to enable the teacher to gather knowledge under logically sequent heads. The best plan is for the teacher to depend mainly on the labours of some one skilled in collecting such information in printed "Notes of Lessons," and to supplement, or vary, these from her own reading and observation. This course saves the young teacher much time, and prevents many mistakes into which an unaided junior teacher is liable to fall, such as calling a whale a *fish*, etc. Such "Notes of Lessons" are also useful for mere Examination purposes, and require some accurate *scientific* knowledge for their clear preparation. The subject is amply explained in Major's "Notes of Lessons."

In the Syllabus for Female Teachers sitting for Certificates with special reference to Infant Schools, the subjects for "Notes of Lessons" are grouped under the following heads:—

"The objects sought in 'Notes of Lessons,' 'Lessons of Instruction,' are:—*For the Teacher*—

"(1) The *cultivation* of the habit of *preparation* of these and all other lessons.

"(2) The training of the mind to *logical sequence*; the subject being divided under proper heads, and one part of the lesson being made to hang naturally on another.

"(3) The *storing* of the teacher's mind with facts about 'Common things' and ordinary phenomena of nature and of daily life. This is the most useful of all kinds of knowledge and has to be acquired—it is not innate, and there is a tendency for it to be overlooked because it is so near our consciousness. We say 'it snows,' 'it hails,' 'it freezes,' 'it rains,' and do not stop to inquire how these come about; we walk on paving-stones, live in houses, have dealings with domestic animals, feed on their flesh, and are clothed with their skin, hair, or wool; we drink

tea, coffee, cocoa; eat bread, rice, fruits, etc.; travel in boats, railways, etc.; and unless our attention be specially directed to the subject are ignorant of any of these things.

“(4) Habits of *observation* and *reflection* are acquired. A good teacher of Notes of Lessons for Gallery Lessons will look close to her hand for illustrative objects: a bit of granite, chalk, coal, pebble, a flower, a plant, a bee, a bird, a frog, a live river fish, a live crab, shrimp, prawn, steam coming out of a kettle, the breath on a slate, the sun streaming in at the window, the rain running down the street, the puddle at the door, the deal floor or desk, a slate, a pencil, a map, a clock, a lump of ice, etc., etc. And as the most successful teachers of science are those handiest in manipulative skill, in making rough and ready cheap scientific apparatus, so the most skilful teacher of gallery lessons is she who can most readily draw outlines, sketches, diagrams, etc., on the blackboard, building up a whole out of its parts, before the children, letting them see it grow; being in fact a ‘maker,’ a ‘creator’ (in a humble sense). This is an immense benefit to the teacher as well as to the taught, and includes a fertility of resources which will be reflected in the conduct of daily life, in the management of a house, etc.”

The objects sought for the *children* have been generally anticipated in what has just been said.

OBJECTS AND AIMS OF CLASS TEACHING.

The great strength of Elementary School education compared with that of Private Schools is that its teachers are trained to deal with large numbers in classes. Recent educational legislation and the establishment of large Board Schools with seventy to eighty children in each class (about twice as many as in many a country school), has greatly perfected the systems and methods of class

instruction. Of course, the individual instruction brings the mind and character into more intimate and personal contact with the taught than class instruction does, and so the individual becomes better moulded in the former case if the teacher be a good one.

On the other hand the strong points of Class Teaching are—

- I. *Sympathy of Numbers.*
- II. *Emulation.*
- III. *Repetition.*
- IV. *Introduction to Actual Life.*

I. *Sympathy of Numbers* is sometimes called *imitativeness*, and is a faculty in child nature which may lead to much good or evil according as it is directed. It is a great factor in school government, and in discipline generally where bodies of men and boys have to be controlled, as in the army, navy, etc. By enlisting this sympathy on the side of the teacher by skilful tact and adroit management, sometimes by a little judicious flattery of the foibles of boy or girl nature, a skilful teacher can govern where others have failed. It is frequently judicious to appeal to the school; asking what should be done. On the whole the sentiment of a school is generally sound-hearted.

II. *Emulation.*—This is a healthy spirit in man or child, provided that the object aimed at be a worthy one, and the means of obtaining it be worthy also. On the other hand, there is the danger of awakening spiteful, dishonest, conceited notions in the minds of the competitors, also the discouragement of the naturally dull or slow; and the teacher may be led astray by a few quick ready answers in class teaching, to think that all the class has been learning. Hence frequently follows at an examination a collapse unexpected by the teacher. We must not, of course, measure the amount of work done in class teaching solely by the power of reproduction in the class; some

children have more difficulty in expressing thoughts than others. This spirit of emulation has necessarily to be spurred in a child, because it cannot see the tangible good of education. By means of it the flagging interest is awakened, and the imagination stimulated to new efforts.

III. *Repetition*.—Another great advantage in class teaching is that the subject matter must be given out so many times, or with such a variety of illustrations, in order that all the class may learn, that the tedium of repetition to the teacher is overborne by the necessities of the situation. All successful teaching depends more upon these two points than upon any others, except the ability of the teacher and of the taught.

The first marks made by the engraver are not those which longest resist effacement ; it is the second, third, and fourth strokes of the burin, or of the chisel, that cut the deepest and last the longest ; and he is the best learner and teacher who has the most patience in this respect, and goes on with work when he thinks he has done it. A variety of illustrations is at all times pleasant to the learner, and sometimes is absolutely necessary.

IV. *Introduction to Actual Life*.—In the keen contest and encounter of competition in class teaching, a child is introduced into the actualities of his after life. He has to fight for his own hand ; to meet rebuffs ; to learn how to express himself ; to seize the occasion as it flies ; to be ready with a reason why.—It is the learning of these which makes up the greatest part of the real worth of education.

Scheme for Object Teaching.—The objects and aims for class teaching vary, of course, with the age of the children dealt with. The following scheme is taken from that adopted by the London School Board, so far as the writer could approve of such :—

“(1) *Aim*.—To develop in the children’s mind an interest in the things around and about them ; teach the use of all

the senses (especially of sight, hearing, touch), and to form habits of observation; to impart a correct knowledge of the commonest things within reach of the child); to increase the infant's vocabulary and power of expression.

"In order to carry this out it will be necessary to talk with the children about the objects around them, so as to draw out their own powers of perception and thought. The objects conversed upon should not be many, but should be, if possible, the real things themselves; and should be inspected, handled, etc., by each child, the several parts pointed out and named with their more simple qualities and uses. In some cases also the objects should be taken to pieces, dissolved or burnt, in order to make their properties evident."

The lessons in the earliest stage should, at first, be based on the facts of home life which are within the observation and knowledge of the "Babies." The Baby Room should, therefore, be made as nearly as possible like the home, and should contain familiar household objects, or at least pictures of them. The lessons should be conversational, and the teacher should suggest and guide the conversation rather than monopolize it. These lessons might spring from a few well-drawn pictures of home-scenes, such as take place in the lives of most children, "Up in the Morning Early," "Father's Return," etc., etc. The first of these pictures might represent the interior of a home, with various domestic objects, each of which might form the subject of a separate "chat." The clock is, perhaps, singled out, and the children are asked to observe that in the schoolroom carefully for a few seconds. The "action song" about the clock should be then sung or practised. The teacher should be careful in this early stage to subject the children to as little restraint as possible, and to aim at surrounding the School Baby Room with as much of the spirit of a

well-ordered and cheerful home as the circumstances will permit.

With the children of five years of age and upwards, the teaching of Object Lessons may be more systematic, and at least four half-hours in the week should be devoted to it. It will also be naturally co-ordinated with the Kinder-garten and literary lessons. Thus the lesson on the "Hen" might be associated with the tracing of the picture of a hen, with a movement song about "Hens and Chickens."

A few objects should be selected from each of the four following groups:—

(a) Domestic Group. The schoolroom itself, with door, chair, table, desk, fireplace, and clock. The child's coat, cloak, frock, cap, shawl, and boots. Pins, needles, knife, scissors, bell, and kettle; to which may be added any other articles of school or house furniture, clothing, or common utensils.

(b) Animal Group. First in importance comes the child itself, afterwards the cat, dog, horse, cow, sheep, cock and hen, sparrow, herring, fly, beetle, to which may be added any other familiar animals such as donkey, rabbit, mouse, goose, canary, lark, pigeon, shrimp, crab, lobster, sole, plaice, spider, butterfly, bee, periwinkle, oyster, earth-worm, etc. The parts of animals may form the subjects of lessons, such as head, hand, foot, paw, eye, ear, mouth, nose, hair, feathers, wool, etc.

(c) Plant Group. The choice will depend upon the season of the year and should include the nearest trees, and such smaller plants as are accessible, as the primrose, violet, daisy, crocus, dandelion, wallflower, hyacinth, geranium, fuchsia, holly, cabbage, pea, etc.

(d) Mineral Group. Coal, iron, copper, etc.

"(2) *Subjects of Instruction*.—Objects illustrative of the three kingdoms of nature (animal, vegetable, and mineral), especially such as the child meets with in ordinary life.

“(3) *Means*.—Diagrams ; needful objects which the children themselves can bring: living animals easily procured: sketches on blackboard, pictures, etc.”

In the following remarks the author has attempted to give—

- (1) The objects and aims of teaching in class.
- (2) The methods to be employed.
- (3) The mistakes most commonly made.
- (4) Miscellaneous practical hints.

So far as the individual work of taking a class in an Elementary School is concerned, the main requisities in the teacher are (*a*) industry, (*b*) quick observation, (*c*) attention to instructions from Head Teacher. With these qualifications experience shows that almost any one can become a good class teacher. One often finds junior teachers who have been dismissed under complaint of inefficient Head Teachers who become excellent instructors under more capable government. “Bad workmen quarrel with their tools.” On the other hand, no amount of ability in the direction of cultivated intellect will make a teacher, if she is not (*a*) industrious and (*b*) observant.

(*a*) INDUSTRY.—Sir I. Newton said, and every successful man or woman will endorse the statement, that “a man of genius is a man of industry.” Absolutely the whole time spent before a class is a time of hard incessant work, without one interval of rest for the teacher, though there may be change of work, gymnastics, etc., equal to rest, for the taught. One moment’s idleness is fatal to discipline; the reins fall out of the hand; they are with difficulty recovered, and a whip and a spur have to be applied to get back into the groove of work. It is this which makes the teacher’s life so irksome and laborious; so wasteful of temper and of nerve tissue. Besides the exhaustion of nervous power, there is the fatigue of the lungs and throat due to class as distinguished from individual teaching.

Recent legislation and practice, and the introduction of better methods, larger schools, class rooms no longer cramped up to the mystic twenty feet wide, and more special organization, have made the classes taught larger than before, and so exacting more from the throat and the brains of the teacher. But this industry is rewarded in the growing intelligence of the class; in the "wisdom that maketh a man's face to shine." Of course, if one has not sympathy with this dawning of wisdom, teaching is a mill-round; a mere grinding of clay; not a moulding of human minds and souls.

(b) OBSERVATION.—"Eyes and no eyes." This is one great distinction between good and bad teachers. One anticipates the moment of weariness, of straying attention, of want of comprehension of a difficulty, of eyes going to the clock, of objects being passed from one to another, of copying from neighbour, of rubbing off from slate what should be kept on, of poking a neighbour's ribs, pulling back hair, exchange of marbles, and a thousand and one ebullitions of undisciplined youth. Such a teacher nips this in the bud; the criminal in intention stands confused and condemned by a glance of the eye, without spoken word, and before he has become criminal in act. "No eyes," on the other hand, has a class all tags and fringes, all ragged edges, with faces directed to the thirty-two points of the compass, in exemplification of Solomon's dictum, "A fool's eyes are in the ends of the earth." It is not a well ordered regiment, but an undisciplined rabble, a many-headed mob. "Every child doeth what seemeth to himself best." Some are supercilious of the existence, not to say the presence, of the teacher. Of all this "no eyes" is supremely unconscious, talking at the class with few or none listening, with perhaps some playing "odd and even" under the very nose.

SPECIAL OBJECTS AND AIMS OF CLASS TEACHING.

- (1) The training of the young mind to *consecutive thought*.
- (2) The *accumulation of useful knowledge*.
- (3) The cultivation of *habits of observation*.
- (4) The training of the *inventive faculty*, encouraging the mind to ask *why? when? where? how?*
- (5) The exciting of *interest in the near*.
- (6) The introduction to the *unknown* through the known.
- (7) The cultivation of *memory*—verbal, visual, and auditory.
- (8) The *concentration of attention* in sustained thought, to the uprooting of habits of mental dissipation and vacuity.
- (9) The growth of *power of expression* under the encouragement of a sympathizing teacher.

METHODS OF CLASS TEACHING.—The following remarks may be useful:—Let the children be seated, and let the teacher herself stand so as to command the whole class, and have the blackboard on her left. Take care that the right flank, which is apt to be lost sight of, be in the eye of the teacher. Give a moment of quietness at the commencement to still the class and hush its spontaneity, as a good speaker does. The blackboard should not be used as a refuge for the incapacity of the teacher. It should “hold the mirror up” to the class, giving merely an outline, at the end, of what has been done. When the teacher does turn round to the blackboard she should keep the class occupied. The class ought never under any circumstances to be out of the eye of the teacher. Do not let a few bright children get all the instruction; the best teacher is the one who knows best each child in the

class. Do not be drawn away by the children, or by your own love of illustration, from the main subject of your lesson. Anybody can give a lesson for an hour on a given subject; it wants some self-control to do it in twenty minutes. Some teachers wallow and splash about, instead of flying straight to the mark. Avoid the pernicious habit of giving little scraps of information, and immediately extorting them back by a question, as "Alfred was a great man. What was Alfred, children?" The class learns nothing from this except to grow up with dissipated attention.

SPECIAL LESSONS TO CULTIVATE THE SENSES.

1. *Sight.*

This will be trained by Lessons on Form and Colour, with a formal lesson on these, by means of sheets and boxes of form and colour, and generally in the Kindergarten Lessons. Every diagram and picture used in the lessons proper, and in the conversations, will also have the same end in view. Appeal should also be made to the visual *memory* of the child, by asking what the children have seen in the street, house, etc., to illustrate the lesson that may be given.

2. *Sound.*

The Music lessons will partly deal with this sense; but a formal lesson may also be given to teach the meaning of *Loud and Soft*; *High and Low*; *Music and Noise*; *Round and Full*; *Thin and Squeaking*; *Pleasant and Jarring*; *Quick and Slow*, etc. Such a lesson should be illustrated by a tuning-fork, a pitch-pipe, bell, the voice in singing and speaking, a stretched wire, the fall of a heavy object, scraping on an inelastic substance, a school song, etc.

3. *Taste.*

A formal lesson on this sense may be given, and in it the teacher should appeal to the individual consciousness of the child, by allowing it to taste such things as sugar, salt, alum, gentian root, to find out the meaning of *sweet*, *salt*, *sour*, and *bitter*.

4. *Smell.*

Smells will be discriminated by the children as pleasant and unpleasant. Among the former will be the scent of flowers, and the class should be taught to observe that each flower has "*its own*" smell. Among the unpleasant smells will be those of the escaping gas, organic substances put into the fire (egg-shells, wool, leather, india rubber, etc.). Reference should here be made to the necessity of cleanliness of the body, clothes, and house.

5. *Touch.*

This is the most complicated of all the special senses, and the teacher should aim at fixing the meaning of *Hard and Soft* (by comparing the "feel" of iron and putty or paste); *Solid and Liquid* (by reference to iron and water); *Rough and Smooth* (as illustrated by sand-paper and glass); *Long and Short, Wide and Narrow, Thick and Thin* (by the passage of the hand over the dimensions of objects).

COMMON MISTAKES.

Mistakes most commonly made in gallery lessons:—

(1) Instead of *teaching*, collective lessons are too frequently examinations. These lessons should be given on the assumption that the subject is unknown; still questions may be used—

- (i.) To test intelligence.
- (ii.) To keep up attention.
- (iii.) To see whether the class has learned the instruction given at the end of each sub-section.

(2) Technical terms are too frequently used: these should be withheld until the notions attached to them are familiar to the class; such technical terms include transparent, opaque, brittle, etc.

(3) Some classes are dinned with talk. The children are not taught, they are lectured and talked at; there is no break in a too fluent discourse; the class is looked on as a receptacle into which knowledge can be poured, not as a complex mind that has to wrestle.

(4) The blackboard is taught instead of the class. The black-board has its abuses as well as its advantages. Its uses are—

- (i.) For side illustrations, spellings, sketchings;
- (ii.) To mark out the skeleton of the lesson.

Its disadvantages are—

- (i.) It distracts the attention of the teacher from the class;
- (ii.) Unless the teacher can see round the corner it promotes talking, disorder, and inattention;
- (iii.) It wastes the teacher's time.

INSTRUCTION AND EDUCATION.

Every treatise on School Management points out the difference between Instruction and Education; and it is necessary that every teacher should have clear ideas of the difference. Throughout the whole of school work education should be the principal object of the teacher; but this is particularly the case in oral teaching as distinguished from the teaching of the three R's.

Instruction is the building-up of material (facts, informa-

tion, knowledge) into the mind of the child, so as to make it a store-house of these materials for future use, and a foundation for deductive reasoning.

Education is the drawing out and strengthening of the mental and moral powers of the child, so that it may make a proper use of the materials of instruction, and deduce theories, laws, and principles for the child's own guidance. By it judgments are based on the previous observations and experiments of ourselves and of others.

By the one *Knowledge* is garnered, by the other *Wisdom*.

The *Inductive* method of teaching proceeds from the *known to the unknown*, and depends on *Observation* and *Experiment*; *Deductive* methods are used in pure abstract reasoning, and make use of *Analysis* and *Hypothesis*, and should rarely be resorted to in our Infant Schools.

Examination and Inspection.—From the Government point of view, and as looked at from the standpoint of the Inspector, the distinction between Instruction and Education is summarized in the two words—Examination and Inspection.

The former (*Examination*) tests the quantity and quality of the instruction given; the latter (*Inspection*), besides testing the *methods* used, searches into the training of the mind secured by the mere instructive processes. In order, therefore, that a teacher may be perfect in her work, she must be perfect in Method and Management.

By *Method* we mean modes of teaching and training; viz. the ways of teaching Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, etc. This is school work viewed from the side of instruction—it is the executive department of a teacher's work.

By *Management* we mean school-keeping generally—the rule and governance of the little kingdom; the inculcation of obedience of children and staff, the maintenance of order, quietness, discipline, and industry; the allotment of time to

special tasks on Time Tables ; this is in many respects the administrative department of school work.

There is, of course, a most intimate connection, as well as a clear distinction, between School Method and Management. That is, the best methods for imparting instruction and for educating children *in classes* being necessarily those which affect the whole class, and not individuals merely, they must have reference to keeping the attention and so preventing noise, talking and confusion generally. And if each class is thus instructed the task of the head mistress so far as management is concerned, will be considerably lightened, though she will still have to devote attention and forethought to—

(1) Marking out the routine of the school by Time Tables.

(2) Seeing that the proper temperature and ventilation are kept up.

(3) Providing suitable apparatus.

(4) Keeping up the Registration (admission, daily class-register-taking, summarizing, taking pence, marking log-book, etc.).

(5) Overlooking the teachers at work ; giving model lessons herself ; holding personal examinations.

(6) Selecting the songs ; superintending drill, etc.

ATTENTION.—This is the faculty of the mind by means of which one train of thought, or one set of impressions only at a time is allowed to occupy the mind.

The following are some of the difficulties in arousing or fixing attention in infants :—

(1) In some cases the child is *slow* in all mental exercise—and requires a powerful stimulus to arouse its attention.

(2) In others the child is *quick* mentally, and the attention is easily distracted.

(3) The child is *too sensitive* ; the excitement due to

the bustle around, and the anticipated pleasure and pain of praise and censure, distract the train of ideas. The child at one moment has the matter on the "tips of the fingers," next instant it is gone beyond recall.

(4) The child is *mentally weak*, either temporarily from want of practice up to the particular moment, or permanently and then hopelessly.

The means to be depended on for arousing and fixing attention are—

(1) Exciting *curiosity*, wonder, surprise, the love of the marvellous and new.

(2) The perception of *utility*, and of adaptation of means to ends.

(3) Love of *approbation* and dislike to censure.

(4) The *sympathy of numbers*, Imitativeness, Emulation.

(5) *Spontaneity*—the love of activity, the "Sense of Power," and desire to be doing something on the part of the child.

RULES FOR JUNIOR TEACHERS.

(1) Have in your *own* mind a clear conception of the subject matter and method of the lesson; and keep in view the capacity of the class, and of its individual members, and rather err on the side of simplicity than of too great difficulty.

(2) Introduce the subject by an appeal to the known, but let this be pertinent to the subject. Thus, if the lesson is to be on Sugar, do not commence with the vague question, "What did I do when I got up this morning?" More precisely inquire, "What did I have to drink for breakfast?" and so lead up naturally to sugar.

(3) Avoid the stock questions, "How many eyes has a cat?" "How many ears has a dog?" etc.

(4) Remember that it is in the Object Lesson that

"expression" in the children and in yourself can be best cultivated.

(5) Use the simplest Saxon words ; eschew such terms as "conductivity," "opaque," "perpendicular," "obtuse," etc.

(6) Do not crowd your lesson with too many facts.

(7) Recapitulate each section, and the whole.

(8) Limit the lesson to 15-30 minutes according to the capacity of the class.

(9) Do not be afraid to be graphic or dramatic in representations, but avoid vulgar mannerisms.

(10) Make the Object Lesson a treat to the child by maintaining a lively, cheerful manner on the part of yourself and class.

(11) Encourage the children to ask questions on the subject matter ; but gently repress discursive talkativeness. One of the objects of the teacher is to strengthen the power of expression of the child, and this can be better secured in the collective lesson than in any other part of school work.

(12) Do not think, because the children sit open-mouthed, that they are always open-minded ; make allowance for their being impressed rather by your manner and method, than informed by your matter from time to time ; test the class in this respect by a searching question, and if you or they are "at fault," retrace your steps and vary your method.

(13) Never be guilty of the unkindness and vulgarity of "snubbing." If a child has answered wrongly, gently lead him to correct himself. If susceptibilities are wounded, they with difficulty bloom again ; and you lose the valuable sympathy of the child.

(14) Carefully prepare your Notes of Lessons from trustworthy text-books, of recent publications ; the "knowledge, rudimentary as it may be, should be good and sound so far as it goes" (HUXLEY).

Too frequently young teachers, themselves knowing nothing by actual sight of the things or processes described, fall back on obsolete text-books, and give erroneous notions. This is specially the case where they venture, which they should rarely do, to describe manufacturing processes, in which new methods are constantly superseding old ones.

(15) Constantly bear in mind which of the "Five Senses" it is to which you should appeal in teaching a class by means of a Collective Lesson, and do not use such vague terms as *nice, sweet, good, bad*, etc., which may apply to several characteristics.

(16) Always leave on the board a "Blackboard Sketch" of the lesson: thus, suppose the lesson has been a Cow; the sketch might be after the following form:—

THE COW.

She gives us *Milk*.

From Milk we make BUTTER and CHEESE.

Her Skin is made into LEATHER.

In preparing Object Lessons keep in mind—

(1) The *Subject Matter*—the selection of subject, the arrangement of matter, the accuracy of statements, and the amount, which is not to be more than sufficient for the lesson.

(2) The *Method*, as to clearness, fluency, impressiveness, verbal, pictorial, and diagrammatic illustration; the choice of words and tone of voice.

(3) *Recapitulation*, at the end of each subsection, and at the close.

GOOD POINTS IN A COLLECTIVE LESSON.

(1) *The Subject Matter* :—

- (a) A subject suitable to the capacity of the class.
- (b) A logical sequence in the arrangement.
- (c) Recapitulation of each section and of the whole.
- (d) Pertinent questioning ; and clear explanation.
- (e) The awakening of thought and observation.

(2) *The Teacher* :—

- (a) Power of awakening, retaining, and recovering of attention.
- (b) Quick eye, and ear, and lively but patient, sympathizing manner.
- (c) Simple but choice language; pure pronunciation and enunciation, and measured delivery.
- (d) Aptness to take advantage of suggestion and illustration nearest at hand.
- (e) Power to resist discursiveness.
- (f) Larger knowledge of the subject than the lesson may probably demand.
- (g) Skill in use of blackboard.
- (h) Ability to add to the instruction, and strengthen the education of the class by means of the lesson.

CRITICISM FORM.

In some schools it is the custom for a teacher to give a Gallery Lesson, while the others listen and criticize it. This marks the good as well as the bad points, but requires careful handling. If well and judiciously done, it has the following benefits :—

(1) It encourages the careful preparation of the lesson by the teacher giving it.

(2) It fixes on the minds of all the special errors to be avoided, and the strong points to be aimed at.

(3) It corrects weak tendencies.

(4) It arouses a spirit of emulation.

The dangers accompanying the practice are—

(1) It may encourage “priggishness.”

(2) It may foster hard, unsympathetic judgments.

(3) It sometimes discourages the nervous and sensitive.

(4) The teacher may think too much of the critics and too little of the class.

The following form may be useful, in blank, to call the attention of the listeners to the weak and strong points of the lesson :—

Subject Matter.	Remarks.
<p>I. <i>Choice of Subject.</i></p> <p>(a) Whether suitable to the class.</p> <p>(b) Whether suited to the special power of the teacher.</p> <p>II. <i>Teacher's Knowledge.</i></p> <p>(a) Whether practical and personal, or only derived from books.</p> <p>(b) Whether full and accurate.</p> <p>III. <i>Treatment.</i></p> <p>(a) Whether in logical sequence.</p> <p>(b) Does it proceed from the known to the unknown?</p> <p>(c) Does it depend on, or awaken, observation?</p>	

Method.	Remarks.
<p>I. <i>Illustration.</i> (a) Is appeal made from the complex to the known ?</p> <p>II. <i>Questioning.</i> (a) Does it awaken reflection ? (b) Is it stimulative ?</p>	
Results.	
<p>(a) Has the class learnt all attempted ? (b) Was the order good ?</p>	

THE ART AND SCIENCE OF QUESTIONING.

It has been well said that a child can ask a question which an archangel could not answer: this kind of questioning is that which is to be avoided by the teacher. No question should be asked that the class or child cannot fairly be expected to answer. If the answer is not forthcoming after time is given for thought, the teacher and not the class is at fault, unless there has been inattention; and then also it may be said that this is the fault of the teacher.

Good questioning implies rare skill in the questioner and an accurate knowledge of the capacity of the questioned. The questions should be—

(1) *Expressed in few and simple words*; a cloud of words obscures the meaning, especially to infants, whose vocabulary is limited.

(2) Not a *leading question*, which neither (a) draws out the power of a child, nor (b) tests if knowledge has been acquired. Such leading questions suggest the answer without thought, e.g. "Alfred was always kind to his people; what sort of a man was Alfred?"

(3) *Definite and pertinent*; not vague and to be answered in more than one way, e.g. "What did I do when I came to school this morning?"

(4) *Suited to the capacity of the child*—not on abstract principles or far removed from the concrete, as "Why did God make man?" "How do we know the world is round?"

(5) *Rarely to be answered by "Yes" or "No."*—Such questions are generally either so simple that the answer is given *without intellectual effort*, or the class is equally divided between "Yes" and "No," and the wrong answer difficult to correct. Of course "guessing" should never be allowed; and to prevent this questions should not be given which tempt to this bad habit.

QUESTIONS are asked—

(1) *Tentative*—to test the previous ignorance or knowledge of the class.

(2) *Socratic*—to lead the child—

(a) To see its own ignorance.

(b) How to remove this by observation and reflection.

(3) *Examinative*—to enable the teacher to see if the class or individual has grasped the subject matter.

REMARKS OF H.M.'s INSPECTORS ON CLASS TEACHING.

"The infant teaching is the weakest part of our school work. Let me give a specimen or two. I draw from life. The mistress, a young woman totally destitute of that

fertile wit and quick manner so necessary for young children, is discoursing on a cow. The children mechanically answer a few stock questions from time to time, some apparently attend, but their attention is evidently attracted solely by the moving figure and the face of the teacher as the most interesting object in the room, her words strike no chords in their minds. Here a group are furtively discussing a new ribbon worn in honour of the occasion, there others are learning to give and take by various pinches and pushes which must be covertly given and silently endured. Others are indulging in unseemly behaviour unnoticed and unchecked. Some yawns from the elder children soundly criticize the whole performance. Or thus,—it is the infant class-room of a small town school. Some twenty infants are sitting on two tall benches with dangling legs and doubled up bodies. In front is a board with the alphabet sheet. A little girl of eleven with her stick alternately points to the letters and pokes the silent members of her class in the ribs. This lesson lasts for three-quarters of an hour, and is succeeded by a similar one on the ball frame. These are to some extent extreme cases, but the treatment of infants is not in many cases much kinder or wiser.

“I sometimes wonder what gutters can be worse for the moral and intellectual training of infants than some of our schools. The oyster shells, the broken bricks, the dead rat of the gutter, furnish a real Kinder-garten, if a somewhat rough one, and to take the poor children from this and condemn them to the prison of some of our schools is a doubtful boon. There may be some who think that discomfort is education, or, as the cobbler fits feet to boots, think children were made to be tortured into the measure of their schools; but to see rows of children brought by fear, weariness, and close air into a kind of dulled torpor is to me inexpressibly shocking.

"Good teachers are above methods, and my criticisms will only apply to a small extent to their schools. Object lessons are regarded as the great means for cultivating the children's intelligence. Yet good object lessons are rare events in my experience; some are passable, most of little use. Teachers forget that a thorough mastery of the subject, great variety of method and illustration, great quickness of wit and presence of mind, and a vivid sympathy with the audience are all wanted for a successful object lesson. There are not many teachers thus qualified, and whilst a good object lesson is one of the highest kinds of teaching, a bad object lesson is much more than a mere waste of time. Again, the purveyors of school apparatus seem resolved to do all they can to mislead teachers. Cabinets are furnished containing a pebble with a printed label "a stone" glued to it, there are brickbats and potsherds duly notified. In one I saw some varnished acorns. Bottles the size of one's thumb contain specimens of all conceivable and inconceivable things. One thing these objects will help in, but it is an easy task. They will help the teacher to make the children untruthful. The little object is held up to be seen. Probably not a child can discern it really. Under the teacher's guidance the children say they see this, that, and the other when they really do not. Now, no object is suitable for an object lesson unless all the children from their places can without serious effort discern all the points referred to. A large dog for example has more than once made an excellent object. A mistress can make a large lump of putty before the children, using plenty of materials and a big bowl and board, or she can make a brick with real clay and a real mould. Such objects are good. If the object be too small for all to see together, each child should have one, when the highest type of object lesson is reached. For example, in a lesson on the

acorn, each child can take it from its cup, bite off its hard shell, rub off its coat, split the cotyledons, observe the germ, and taste the flavour. The tiny tree grown in preparation for the lesson will be conspicuous enough in its little pot only because the children will have had their interest prepared for it. Or take a key. A young teacher finds a little one in her cabinet tied to a card, and she gives a lesson on it. What are its uses? If she says it is to open a lock, she lies—there is no lock for that key to open. Without this misguiding apparatus she would have locked the door covertly, and with the key in her pocket ordered a child out of the room, or she would have sent a child for the chalk out of the locked up drawer. The key thus pleasantly called for, the lesson starts with accumulated interest.

“The great aim of the Infant School, as of all schools, is to give the children constant, varied, and pleasant employment. With this the intelligence develops, without it, it shrivels up. If the children can be made to think (the hardest of all work) whilst the teacher gives them an object lesson, the highest kind of school work is done; if not, the object lesson should be abandoned and the children interested in other work. The experience of my childhood and what I see in my own children leads me to believe that work in which children take spontaneous delight, as moulding in clay and sand, building with bricks, construction in paper or straw, each child for itself, is the most powerful agent in drawing out intelligence.

“In the Kinder-garten system this is carried out, but my small knowledge of schools conducted on this plan leads me to regard it as in many directions too narrow and definite in its aims to be very stimulating to the children’s intelligence, and on the other hand too easy throughout to give the children habits of hard work. I should be inclined in working an Infant School to put the children

in their seats with tables to mould their clay or sand, plait their paper, thread their beads, sort their shades of colour (they might with profit handle some sixty different shades), etc., etc. Then, whilst the younger teachers see that the children work quietly at these tasks, let the elder teachers take the classes out in rotation for Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. If there were three half-hour lessons in the two hours, with intervals for marching and song, the children below six years of age might have two lessons of playwork, and one involving Reading, Writing, or Arithmetic. The children above six might have one lesson of playwork, separating their other two lessons on the set subjects. Taught in some such way as this, I believe far more progress would be made and greater intelligence cultivated; still, after all the intelligent teacher can never be dispensed with, and she must choose her methods."—MR. ALDIS.

"These too often contain far more matter than can properly be imparted in a single lesson, and exhibit too little thought of what may be assumed to be the attainments of the class to be taught. In Infant Schools the collective lessons are generally better than in others; but all object lessons are overladen with long words."—MR. BALMER.

"One very common defect in the lessons is the use of language above the understanding or knowledge of the children. Far more good might be got from a lesson if children were induced to state their difficulties; this is seldom done at present. As a rule the lessons are too comprehensive. A teacher who tries in twenty minutes to unfold the whole process of coal mining, must naturally slur over many points and leave many dark sayings unexplained. Too often, indeed, the class leave their teacher as Tennyson's Northern farmer left his priest—

'An' I niver knaw'd whot a meän'd, but I thowt a äd summut to
sääy,
An' I thowt a said whot a owt to 'a said, an' I ooom'd awääy.'

We want more suitable language, more intelligent reasoning, and more interesting facts."—MR. FISHER.

CHAPTER VI.

OCCUPATIONS.

III. APPROPRIATE AND VARIED OCCUPATIONS.—The third subject upon which the Merit Grant is made to depend includes suitable and diverse occupations. The interpretation of this clause will somewhat vary with the individuality of H.M.'s Inspector, some, for instance, being favourable, and others unfavourable, to *Kinder-garten* exercises. But most Inspectors will give sufficient scope to a conscientious earnest teacher, and will recognize that, after all, women as a rule understand Child-Nature a great deal better than men; and that many of themselves for many years have more to learn with regard to it than they have to inculcate in others.

In the Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors, this part of the school work is referred to as "a proper variety of physical exercises and interesting employments;" and it is remarked "that it is of little service to adopt the 'gifts' and mechanical occupations of the *Kinder-garten* unless they are so used as to furnish real training in accuracy of hand and eye, in intelligence and in obedience." These remarks will be very useful to the teacher as pointing out what she ought to aim at.

BABIES.

The difficulty of the new Code (1883) requirements, in the matter of *Varied Occupations for Infants*, increases in

inverse proportion with the age of the children, and will be most severely felt in the Babies' Room. Any *practical* hints, therefore, which can be given in this direction cannot fail to be heartily welcomed by teachers who are seeking about for the best means of meeting the requirements of the new departure.

Now, the first principle to be constantly kept in view is the absolute necessity of *appealing to the senses* in order to—

(1) Train the faculty of Observation ;

(2) To impart Instruction, that is, Information on common objects.

Of these the *sense of sight* is the most important, at this stage, at least; and this consideration should not be masked and obscured by the complex factor of *distance*. In a diagram or picture we have a representation *on the flat* of the outline of objects, and *relief* is only suggested by *perspective*. But a child of four or five years of age has little power to recall by means of a picture or diagram the solidity of an object seen before, and if that object has not been previously seen (as in the case of many domestic and most foreign animals), the diagram or picture is almost meaningless to the infant.

Under these circumstances, it is desirable that the teacher should, in her "Conversations on Animals," produce the living object (cat, dog, etc.) before the class. This can, of course, only be done to a limited extent. We must, therefore, cast about to devise the nearest expedient to what is required. The very best device that can be used, is to procure some of the excellent *india-rubber toy animals* sold in toy-shops and by india-rubber salesmen. These may be purchased uncoloured, for one shilling each, or two shillings coloured according to the natural tints of the animal. The domestic animals should be almost exclusively relied on, especially the cat, the dog (in several varieties), the horse, the cow, the sheep, the goat, the ass, etc. If the

teacher prefers to venture into foreign fields, she should limit herself to the lion, camel, elephant, and a very few others. But, in these latter instances, all suggestions of bloodthirsty and cruel habits should be carefully avoided; it will be time enough for the children to take note of these at a more mature age. These india-rubber toy animals can be handled by the children, they are cheap and durable, give ideas of solidity, can be turned towards the class in all aspects, they present more than *one-sided* views, reveal the "bilateral symmetry" on which such animals are constructed (two eyes, two ears), are more manageable for *number* purposes (one eye and one ear are two eyes, two legs and two ears are four legs, etc.), and, altogether, give notions of the concrete rather than of the abstract.

The Americans largely use *models of animals* made by teachers according to pattern out of flocks (for interior stuffing) and coloured calicoes (principally black and white), smooth or with the nap on, to represent wool (of sheep, etc.). But these are very difficult to make, and never so well proportioned in the smaller parts (extremities of the trunks in elephants, etc.), as in the case of the india-rubber toy animals, which are cast in a mould, and can be made almost perfectly true. As a matter of experience, it may be stated that the children are always absolutely *delighted* with the toy animals; whereas all teachers know how difficult it is to fix their attention for any length of time upon a mere picture.

(i.) KINDER-GARTEN.—The difficulties of English Arithmetic and of the composite character of the English language, as contrasted with the comparative simplicity of Continental decimal notation and the Phonic German tongue, preclude in English schools the abundant use made in Germany of the Kinder-garten. But a little, if not allowed to degenerate into playing with the subject, by either teacher or children, may be made very beneficial,

and where no actual Kinder-garten is taught, the teacher should study its spirit for use in the school. The subject was referred to by Mr. Mundella in a speech delivered Aug. 9, 1881.

“We must insist upon better Infant School teaching—the foundation of all teaching—and we propose also that part of the grants will be made to depend upon the infants being taught by special methods *something akin to the Kinder-garten.*”

Among the benefits to be derived and the objects to be sought from this and similar modes of teaching are the following :—

- (a) To relieve the monotony of school routine.
- (b) To induce manipulative skill.
- (c) To teach “*Number*” by means of cubes, balls, sticks, etc.
- (d) To teach *Colour* by worsted balls, weaving strips, etc.
- (e) To teach *Form* from Kinder-garten drawing-books, slats, etc.
- (f) To teach general notions of size, direction, hardness, softness, length, breadth, and shape, from the cubes and balls.
- (g) To cultivate expression and observation.

The Kinder-garten teaching deals with—

- (a) GIFTS.
- (b) OCCUPATIONS.
- (c) GAMES.

GIFTS.—By means of the first of these colour, number, and form are taught through cubes and worsted balls. The balls are variously coloured, the cubes are concrete representatives of number, and are constructed into various forms.

OCCUPATIONS.—The *occupations*, consisting of weaving coloured strips of paper, stick-laying, moulding in pipe-clay,

etc., give manipulative skill to the little fingers of children, and also teach number, colour, and form.

GAMES.—The *games* are most used in the Babies' Room, and afford rest and recreation, but are also used for constructive purposes in affording general knowledge, lessons on common objects, and conversations on general collective lesson subjects.

Manifestly, therefore, every teacher who has assimilated the salient principles of the method, will enhance her power of conducting an infant school, even in ordinary teaching, by this acquirement.

We will now take up these three divisions separately, explaining what each is in detail, and giving illustrations of the way in which they may be incorporated, by teachers ignorant of the method, into the general infant teaching.

Where *vivâ voce* teaching from an expert in Kinder-garten cannot be obtained, the teacher should purchase a copy of some of the various manuals on the subject, and begin to teach a little (say the first three gifts), and gradually work in the subject as she feels her power and manipulative skill increase.

The following *resumé* of Kinder-garten teaching, written by an experienced Kinder-garten teacher, may indicate to those who know nothing of it the several lines upon which to proceed :—

KINDER-GARTEN TEACHING.

Part I.—Gifts and Occupations.

DIVISIONS.—Kinder-garten *gifts*, and Kinder-garten *occupations*.

GIFT I.—This consists of six worsted balls in the colours of the rainbow, viz. three primary colours: red, blue, yellow; and three mixed: green, violet, orange.

METHOD.—CONVERSATIONAL LESSONS.—On the SHAPE, compare the ball with a ring, saucer, etc.

ON COLOUR.—Name the colours of the balls, and compare these with common objects—first, in nature; second, in art; describe painting, dyeing, colouring, etc.; a word may be probably spoken against coloured sweetmeats.

MANUAL EXERCISES WITH THE BALL.—Holding it firm and safe, rest it in the open palm of the hand, with the arm and hand gently moving sideways, or up and down. The rolling of the ball in the open hands forms an excellent gymnastic exercise, the whole body of the child is thus put into motion. The movement resembles the sifting of corn. The ball should be passed from child to child (facing each other), first at short, then at greater distances. Let the ball rebound from the wall, and thus describe an arch in all its variations, from the slightly curved, almost horizontal line, through the oval, to the perpendicular. Nothing must escape the observant eyes of the children.

To secure strict attention, as well as knowledge of the colours, let the balls be distributed according to their colours, so that the same colour appears at regular distances, the teacher to name things which bear the one colour or the other, and at the word green, or blue, or the mere description of the colour, the *proper* balls to rise in the air simultaneously.

Difference between right and left hand.

Days of week. A certain colour being given on certain days.

Consider the elasticity of the ball. Attach the ball to the string by means of the bodkin. When the string is held at the end, the swinging is slow, but when nearer the ball it increases in speed. Circular swinging should follow, either in the air, or on the table or floor. The latter will show a double motion, the progressive and the revolving. The six strings, each holding a ball, may be also twisted

together until they form one closely twisted string. Held at the extremity, they will unwind in a quick rotatory motion, and exhibit a beautiful display of colours. The two sticks or poles may be inserted in the lid of the box, the perforated piece of wood placed across on the top of the sticks, thus forming a beam for swinging. Draw a string through one of the holes, and the ball will swing fast or slowly.

GIFT II.—This consists of a wooden ball, a cylinder, and two cubes, one of them with holes and eyelets, also some strings and a stick. Thorough acquaintance with the properties, peculiarities, and relations to each other of the ball, the cylinder, and the cube, by a series of practical illustrations, is the main object of this gift. Now the soft coloured ball, harmless to the child, and involving no danger to surrounding objects, is substituted by one which conveys to the child's mind more clearly the ideas of weight, smoothness, hardness, and sound.

In order to fully understand any object, compare it with the opposite of its own kind; thus the ball and cube are opposites, the minute comparison of which will illustrate the peculiar qualities of each far better than the examination of one alone can. Between the two, the cylinder stands as medium, combining in itself the roundness of the ball, and the edges and surfaces of the cube. If we imagine the edges removed, the ball is reproduced; if the roundness be levelled, the cube will be seen.

METHOD.—Draw comparisons—

(a) Between the soft and the wooden ball.

(b) Between the ball and the cylinder. Roll the cylinder, roll the ball. Put a cylinder upright on a piece of paper, run a pencil round the edge, do the same with the ball. Explain the use of the cylinder in the garden, the kitchen, the mangle, the streets, in machinery in general; of the ball in its various materials and adaptations.

Most of the games described in the first gift can be repeated with the wooden ball, but the soft ball only should be used for purposes of throwing. Under all circumstances the ball is the same, not so the cylinder.

Put a string through the brass eyelet in the edge, bring both ends together, twirl the double string well, by turning the cylinder round and round. When the string is firm, draw the ends apart gently, and unwind it. The cylinder will quickly revolve, and will show a totally different form. The same experience will be made when the string is applied to either of the two remaining eyelets, so that the cylinder in its rapid revolutions will show three different forms, all more or less illustrating its relation to the ball. Examine the surfaces of the cube. Compare them with familiar objects in the room. Illustrate the horizontal and perpendicular line by numerous lines in the room. Explain and exemplify the right angle. Compare the surface of the cube with the curved one of the cylinder. (Many interesting and easy lessons in Arithmetic can be added.)

GIFT III.—The same spirit which prompts men to hazard their lives in danger, animates every little child, and manifests itself in every action. A single cube, after being fully comprehended, will not satisfy him long. If he had a knife, and if the material would less resist him, he would certainly divide it into parts to investigate the interior, and to have materials for new and further compositions. This tendency led Froebel to select for the third gift the cube divided through all sides, so that each part should represent the whole on a smaller scale. Thus we have in this gift eight cubes.

The first thing the child has to learn is the proper mode of opening, emptying, refilling, and closing the box. The lid is opened about half an inch, the box reversed bottom upwards, the lid fully withdrawn, and the box lifted up

gently, when the eight cubes appear as they were in the box. The box should afterwards be placed over the cubes, which should be gradually dragged off the table on to the lid of the box ; then the whole should be reversed, and the lid put on again. Careless throwing out of the box must not be permitted. In order to cultivate harmoniously the three powers—intellect, feeling, and acting—the forms practised with this, and all the following gifts are threefold—1st, Mathematical ; 2nd, Artistic ; 3rd, Forms of general utility.

METHOD.—MATHEMATICAL FORMS.—Compare the dissected cube with the solid cube of the second gift. Observe the cross cutting on each side of the one whilst the other is an undivided whole. It will be easy to illustrate in a clear manner Addition, Subtraction, and Multiplication, up to the number eight. Word and action must always go together.

ARTISTIC FORMS.—These forms are to cultivate the sense of the beautiful and the tasteful—the result of order, harmony, and symmetry. Accustom the child to develop figures and forms by slight changes and alterations, rather than to destroy any single one preparatory to constructing another. Proceed from one given form to a new one, naturally and logically. The child will thus learn to be strictly methodical in all his doings, as well as in his reasoning.

FORMS OF UTILITY.—Begin with the simplest forms, and proceed by developing and altering, step by step, one form from another, without destroying. The greatest freedom of choice should be granted, so long as the important principle of developing instead of destroying is observed.

GIFT IV.—Whilst the cubes present no difficulty to the youngest child, being of the same size and shape in all their faces, edges, and corners, this gift shows a marked difference in the proportions of the bricks. We have here

eight bricks, in their total of exactly the same bulk as the eight cubes.

METHOD.—Let the children well comprehend the relation of this gift to the third, then proceed to the mathematical forms. For the artistic forms, this gift offers many new and interesting features. The same course as indicated with the cubes may be adopted and varied.

GIFT V.—This gift is an extension of the third. We now enter upon a field of study and amusement which the Kinder-garten cannot exhaust. We noticed in the second gift the principle of unity in the cube; in the third and fourth the progressive development of the number two. Here *three* is the figure that strikes us. Three cubes in every direction added together produce the number 27. This, in fact, is the first cubic number after the number eight. But the novel feature in this gift is not so much the number of cubes as the appearance of some of them. We find 21 solid cubes, three dissected in halves, and three in quarters, making in all 39 pieces.

METHOD.—Form and number constitute again a large field of study in the mathematical forms. Before using the whole, consider the single parts, especially the new ones. Count their surfaces, edges, and corners; observe the angles. Compare one half with two quarters, and with single quarters. Make one whole of four halves. Compare a square with a cube. Make other forms of four halves. Proceed in the same manner with quarter cubes, counting and naming all the various parts. Form different squares by combining solid and dissected cubes. At the proper age children will not find it difficult to copy these forms on a slate, or in a chequered book. The artistic forms, as well as the forms of general utility, are almost inexhaustible, and children may at this stage be well left to their own inventions.

GIFT VI.—As the fifth gift was a development of the

third, this gift is developed from the fourth. We find in it the same bulk which characterized the fifth, but the shapes of the pieces of wood differ, consisting in this instance of 18 bricks, together with three cut lengthways, and six cut across, so that we have six pillars and twelve square tablets, in all 36 pieces.

METHOD.—The same rules as in the foregoing must guide us here. First study the relations of the new parts to each other, and to the solid bricks. Compare the tablets with the whole pieces, and with the cubes. Compare them with the pillars, the pillars with the cube and with the whole bricks, the tablets with the half and quarter cubes. Form triangles with the tablets, and also with the pillars and whole bricks. Proceed to form open squares, pentagons, hexagons, etc., up to twelve-sided figures. Compare each with similar figures constructed from other pieces—one formed of cubes, one of pillars and bricks. Let squares of different sizes be formed, as also other rectangular forms.

If the teacher succeed in combining artistic and tasteful designs with geometrical forms, and thus find transitional forms leading from one series to the other, she will secure additional interest. Although artistic forms of this gift cannot be produced equal in beauty to those of the fifth gift, yet to a tasteful and ingenious mind, even these materials offer a vast field of speculation. It is essential to have a good starting form. Pretty figures can be developed from the equilateral triangle, especially when the pieces are judiciously arranged. But if the sixth gift is not so well adapted to decorative forms, it surpasses the previous gifts in adaptability to architectural and industrial forms.

Part II.—Kinder-garten Occupations and Amusements.

I. CARDS.—Box containing pieces of cardboard cut into various forms. This is principally used for the purpose of

enabling the child to form letters of different kinds. When children are able to form letters, they are taught to unite them so as to form words. As in every other case, these lessons must commence with such subjects as are well known, and care must be taken not to give a word until the child requires it to express an idea. The teacher may place a child before the class and ask some one to give an appropriate word. Suppose it be "*boy*." She asks for the first letter ; having obtained it she requires each child to write or print "*b*." She examines each slate, and then requires the second letter, "*o* ;" examines again, then the third, "*y*." Having obtained all, she spells and pronounces the word "*boy*," and all the children do the same.

II.—LAYING STICKS.—With a few sticks a great variety of forms may be represented. This occupation is in close connection with that already described, but it is distinct from it, and requires a higher degree of mental power, and is a good introduction to drawing.

INTRODUCTION TO DRAWING.—The senses must be already cultivated, especially the eyes and hands, in order to find the proportion of the distances. The child must have an idea of square, round, straight, right, left, horizontal, perpendicular, oblique, parallel, though he may not be able to define these. The teacher should begin with one stick, and proceed to a greater number. Allow free practice, and all the letters will be formed, also articles of utility and objects of fancy. Care must be taken kindly to point out any defect in form, size, position, proportion, or arrangement, and every encouragement should be given to those who are unable to produce harmonious figures.

III.—STICKS FOR PLAINTING.—This is a relief from those occupations that require mental action and a greater amount of patience and perseverance. The sticks are long and flat. Children exercised in laying and uniting sticks will easily succeed in plaiting them.

IV.—MAT MAKING.—The plaiting of sticks leads to the plaiting of paper, which requires similar manipulation, and is based on the same idea, that of forming separate parts into one whole. The material being slips of paper, soft and coloured, requires more skill and power of combination, as well as a knowledge of the harmony of colours, and a taste for inventing patterns.

The materials required for this work are narrow slips of coloured paper, and a square piece of paper cut into similar slips, but left whole at the margins. The squares must be of some plain colour—black, white, red, green. Each child receives a square, and a number of slips of a colour different from that of the square, also a stick with a notch at one end, in which the slips of paper are fixed; the stick, or needle as it is called, at the teacher's dictation is passed carefully through alternate slips of the prepared square, forming a kind of pattern.

In this occupation, not only the eyes and hands of the children are educated, but the taste for beauty is developed, and order, neatness, and industrial habits are promoted. The mats can be applied to useful and ornamental purposes.

V. PAPER FOLDING.—Amongst other things Froebel gives a child the folding-leaf, a simple square piece of paper, which may be transformed into various forms, by means of simple manipulation. The manifold forms of beauty make a number of the most beautiful rosette-like decorations, such as architects could make use of.

The folding-leaf affords the child the possibility of making many instructive observations; its attention must be drawn to the fact that it has four angles and four sides, which are exactly of the same length. These four sides enclose a surface, with four right angles, or a rectangle. Upon making a triangle of the square, a child will make fresh discoveries. The triangle has three angles, and three sides, but the sides are no longer of the same

length, one is longer; of the four right angles only one is remaining. The greatest attention must be paid to the turnings and crossings. A good form can only be made out of a good ground-form; the skilful folding of the ground-form is therefore indispensable, but children of four and five years, if properly instructed, will be perfectly able to do this.

VI. PAPER CUTTING.—In cutting out a transformation of the material likewise takes place, by separating and dividing it and then rejoining it. According to the laws of nature, commence with the simple, and gradually proceed to the more difficult and composed objects. The occupations of cutting out, besides promoting the development of a proper sense of forms and shapes, is also well calculated to form a just eye, to awaken a sense of beauty, and to promote the skilfulness of the hand.

The exercises begin with the square leaves which the box contains. The square is folded diagonally, so that it gives a triangle. This triangle is folded double once more, upon which the acute angles are laid upon the acute angles, that is to say one in the front and one at the back; in this manner four triangles are formed lying double on each other. The eight-fold triangle thus obtained fits exactly into the metal plate, which is to be found in the box; into this plate it is laid, upon which the square lines of the plate are drawn over the triangle by aid of the small ruler. This net of lines considerably facilitates the drawing of those lines which are to be cut. It is to be noticed that the open side of the folded triangle is to be placed in the plate on the left side.

Begin with the perpendicular cuts to which the horizontal ones succeed, and combinations of perpendicular and horizontal cuts follow, then cross cuts, and lastly some in all three directions, that is to say perpendicular, horizontal, and cross cuts. When the child has executed a

cut, it must arrange the divided parts with the star which has been cut out, into a beautifully shaped whole. By arranging the forms thus obtained into harmonious, symmetrical shapes, the feeling for the beautiful is awakened in a high degree in the child. In order to keep the forms for some length of time, they must be gummed on paste-board, or in a book. Children of a maturer age will find the greatest pleasure in this occupation.

VII. PEA WORK.—This occupation is a sequel to stick laying. It consists in fixing sticks together, so as to represent various mathematical and other regular figures, besides implements, furniture, houses, etc., and other familiar and symmetrical forms. After having practised the construction of flat outline forms, by stick-laying, the child will soon wish to see the sticks fixed in a connected form. To accomplish this recourse must be had to dried yellow peas, which serve to join the sticks together, so as to represent the outlines of a solid form.

This occupation develops a new idea, namely, how to form outline shapes of solid objects. The hard peas should be soaked in water for twelve hours, and then spread upon a piece of paper until they appear somewhat dry and wrinkled. If used immediately after being taken out of the water, they are apt to split; to prevent which the sticks are pointed at each end. It is obvious that this exercise requires somewhat more skill than stick-laying; still it is easily mastered after a little practice. The stick must not be thrust into a pea so deeply as to come out at the other end, nor must the wood of the former be very thick lest it split the pea when penetrating into it. The pea is able to receive six sticks without splitting. The course of teaching is to proceed from simple to complicated things.

The child should be supplied first with one stick and one pea, with which he imitates a stick with a knob, a pin,

a nail, a drumstick, and so on. If the pea be next put into the middle of the stick it assumes the form of a whirling stick, etc. Then follows a stick with two peas, in which the child beholds an axle-tree, a horse's bit, a roller, or a reel for twine. In this manner progress should be gradually made, each time giving the child one pea more to combine with one stick, and always requiring him to give a name to the new shape thus created.

All these exercises only represent flat surfaces, as in stick-laying. By degrees, as the children acquire more practice, it is desirable that they should be set to form angles, and lay the sticks not only at right angles, but likewise at the various degrees of acute and obtuse angles. Then by using a large number of sticks and peas, they will be enabled to form a great variety of shapes. With four triangles, all the necessary rules for learning to draw may be practised, and designs formed, either in outline, or filled up in detail.

VIII. MODELLING.—The apparatus necessary for this consists of a wooden modelling knife and pipe-clay. Plaster of Paris and wax are sometimes used, but pipe-clay is by far the best, as it can be readily procured from the tobacco-pipe maker, and is a very cheap material. Being soft and cohesive in its nature, it is easily moulded. It must always be kept moist, both before and after use, and the best way of doing this is to keep a wet cloth on the clay, before and during lessons. A flat square slab of pipe-clay, about two inches thick, and wider than the proposed object, should be made, to serve as a stand for. This is easily done by the hands.

The top of the slab must be kept wet, otherwise the clay of the mould will not adhere to it. The slab should therefore not be made until you are ready to begin the mould. The clay is then built up and roughly shaped into the form of the model by means of the fingers. When this

is done the young modeller must employ the tools to complete the mould until an exact copy of the original be obtained. This, at first, will be a work of patient perseverance, and must be left to the discretion and taste of the worker; but by a little care, and close watching of the original model, all difficulties will soon be overcome, and success reward the early attempts.

IX. DRAWING.—This is one of the most important of Kinder-garten occupations, and should be one of the earliest practised.

Drawing affords an excellent means for testing how far the child's impressions have been correctly remembered. Froebel's method of teaching drawing differs widely from that usually practised, which is often nothing more than thoughtless mechanical copying. It requires from the child reason and reflection, and in time enables him to invent forms for himself.

With the gifts the child has been able to represent forms and figures; and the desire is now awakened within him to represent by drawing these forms and figures. Various forms are dictated by the teacher, commencing with the combination of perpendicular lines of five different degrees of length, next horizontal lines, then oblique, and finally curved lines.

During the progress of the lesson, the teacher should question as to the number of lines drawn, how many more would be required to make a certain number? What numbers added together would produce any given number, etc., and similarly with subtraction and division. The teacher should be careful to correct any wrong position of the pencil or body.

As a general remark, we may say that no new material should be used in the Kinder-garten, until the teacher has had a conversation with the class upon the nature and use of the same.

CHAPTER VII.

VARIED OCCUPATIONS (*continued.*)

(ii.) PICTURE CONVERSATIONS.—A very useful substitute for the Kinder-garten (where the teacher has no knowledge of the latter, and no taste for it), and a useful accompaniment to it, is afforded by engraved Picture Rolls, and by pictures cut out of illustrated juvenile periodicals. The latter can be cheaply mounted by the teacher herself on old cards, with borders of Brunswick black, and give subjects for *Conversations* especially useful in the Babies' Room. Such pictures, suitable to children, can be selected from the "Infant's Magazine," etc., odd numbers of which in five-shilling packets are sold by Partridge and other publishers. These have been largely introduced into many Infant Schools as pictures for the walls, and make them cheerful and pleasant at a very trifling expense.

(iii.) CONVERSATIONS WITHOUT PICTURES.—Pictures specially suited to every lesson cannot always be procured. Entertaining subjects may often, however, be selected without these, such as The Fable of the Lion and Mouse; The Lark and her young ones (illustrated by the poem on that subject); The Dog and the Shadow; Tortoise and Hare; Alfred and the Cakes; Alfred and the Beggar; Joseph and his Brethren; David and the Lion and Bear; Jesus and the little Children; The White Ship; Sir Philip Sidney at Zutphen; and stories selected from children's

periodicals; what children do at school; days of the week; the parts of the body and their uses. Illustrations of proverbs, as of "Little strokes fell great oaks;" "A stitch in time saves nine;" "Waste not, want not," etc. Differences and likenesses between Dog and Cat; Dog and Fox; Duck and Goose; coverings of Birds, Quadrupeds, and Fishes; Needle and Pin; Pen and Pencil; Cart and Wheelbarrow; Shilling and Penny.

A few of the very commonest domestic animals may also be the subjects of conversational remarks from the teacher, especially the cat, dog, cow, sheep, horse. No formal lessons on these should be attempted in the Babies' Room, but playful remarks interspersed with questions to train observation, should suffice; and *number* should be taught at the same time by means of these conversations. Thus, suppose the "talk" is on a cat. The teacher should, if possible (and this can be easily done, generally speaking), bring a live cat into the schoolroom. To gain the attention of the class the teacher can invent or call to mind a little tale or incident connected with the subject. The following will serve as an instance of what should be attempted:—

Talk on the Cat.

Teacher.—I have a little pussy at home, and a kitten. The pussy is the mother, and the kitten is the baby. Now, my little pussy likes to be clean, and she likes her little baby to be clean, too. This morning pussy gave the kitten a good cleaning, and made her neat and tidy for the day. How does your mother clean you before you come to school? She washes your hands and your face, combs and brushes your hair—yes. And what does she want before she can do this?—A brush and comb, and soap and water! Well, my little pussy has no brush, no comb, no

soap, and no water. What is she to do, then, to wash her baby? You don't know. Well, I will tell you. She does it all with her tongue. She licks the little kitten, and her tongue is rough; so she gets rid of the dust on the kitten, and smooths down its hair.

Let us look at pussy, and see how many eyes she has. One, two! And how many ears has she? One, two! But how many feet? One, two, three, four! and one tail!

Feel how nice and soft the pussy's skin is! and how warm she is, too! and her feet are soft as wool. But she has sharp teeth, and sharp nails, too, to scratch with. I wonder what pussy likes for her breakfast? I saw a cat with a saucer of milk, and she was drinking it. Yes, cats are very fond of milk, quite as fond as little boys and girls.

Now we will send pussy away. What is this?—is this pussy? No, it is her picture! Well, tell me how many legs pussy has in the picture? One, two, three, four; that is right! And how many eyes has she? Only one! Well, that is funny! Bring pussy back again. Now I will hold her so that you see only one of her eyes; but there is another on the other side of her head. So the picture only shows one of pussy's eyes; but there is one on the other side of her head which we can't see in the picture.

Now we will say a pretty little verse on pussy:—

“I love little pussy, her coat is so warm,” etc., etc.

A lesson like this should be given several times to babies; first, because such young children learn only by constant reiteration, and, secondly, because such young children do not tire with repetition as outsiders might think they would.

Besides animals, babies should be taught the names and some of the most obvious uses of the very commonest

objects in the schoolroom, the street, and the house. Thus, in the school, in winter time, the teacher should talk about

The Fire.

What is it for? What do we put on the fire? What do we stir the fire with? What do we put the coals on with? Why do we not pick the coal up in our fingers? What would happen if we picked up a hot coal? What colour is coal? What colour is it in the fire? What is there in the grate under the fire? What shall we do with the ashes? What do we make a fire with? Why do we not always have a fire? Is it hot or cold in the summer? and in the winter? Does snow come in the summer or in the winter? Conclude with a little story on a child who played with the fire and was burnt.

The Street.

When I came to school I saw a man riding. What was he riding in? A cart! a cart! What made the cart go? How many legs has a horse? Which is bigger, a horse or a man? Does the horse go on the pavement or in the road? Why does the horse not go on the pavement? Why didn't I walk in the road? What are the two round things that the cart had to turn round and round? Where does the water run in the streets? Should little children walk in the gutter? What did you see in the shops as you came to school? What must you give the man in the shop before he will give you anything out of his shop? What part of a cart is like a halfpenny? (The wheel.)

The House.

Has a pig got a house? Which is nicer, a pig's house or yours? Why do you like your house better than a sty? What do we call a horse's house? How do you

get into a house? How do you keep anybody else out? How does the light come in? What do you call the place at the back of the house? Do you go to bed in the kitchen? Why not? Is the bedroom upstairs or downstairs? Where is your house? (In the street, the field, etc.) Has the house got a top to it? What do we call the top of a house? What use is the top to the house?

Separate lessons or talks should be given on a kitchen, a bedroom, a living room, etc.; and pictures of houses should be shown, and diagrams drawn on the blackboard, giving the outline, doors, windows, and chimneys only. Similar talks may be given on the things in a house, briefly showing the use of chairs, tables, bed, cupboard, washstand, carpet, etc., etc. Compare an imaginary dirty and a clean house.

LANGUAGE.—TEACHING OF EXPRESSION.*

Much may be done by the teacher of the Infant School to cultivate the habit of correct speaking.

Care should be taken that appropriate terms be used in giving lessons, and that the children give expression to their own thoughts in correct and suitable language.

(1) Any erroneous expression used by the children should be at once corrected by the teacher, and the proper words fixed upon the mind by repetition.

(2) In giving information the teacher should use simple and definite language, and anything elicited from the children during the progress of the lesson should be also thus expressed in fit terms.

(3) Complete answers should be given by the children.

* This section has been compiled and worked out in school by one of the best Infants' Head Mistresses in the country.

Teachers are often content with answers which merely show that the child is in possession of the idea they wish to convey. Teachers should also work for clearness of expression in the child.

Experience teaches us that nothing more tends to make an idea clear to the mind and to render it a permanent possession, than the act of clothing it in accurate language.

This incidental mode of teaching language should be adopted in *all* the classes of an Infant School.

(1) *Forming Sentences from given Words.*

Children should name a number of objects, beginning with those around them. Teacher, with children's help, should write these names under each other on the blackboard, children spelling each word two or three times. Only those names should be thus dealt with which are easily spelt by infants. The teacher should add the word "*is*" or "*are*" after each name, and question children as to what they can say about each object, the teacher helping them to determine whether the terms they apply are appropriate. Thus simple sentences will be formed.

The girl is good.

The stove is black.

The floor is dirty.

The slates are clean.

The sentences should be read over by the class several times, and the children led to observe that each sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. The blackboard should then be turned over, and the class required to reproduce the lesson on their slates, afterwards correcting their exercises from the blackboard. These exercises may be varied by giving the name of a quality, the children, with the assistance of the teacher, supplying the name of an object to which the quality can be attributed, or some part of the verb "*to be*" may be given.

(2) *Forming contracted Sentences.*

The teacher writes the name of some familiar object on the board calling upon the class to apply to it its various qualities, writing their names as they are given.

We will suppose the object mentioned is coal, thus—

Coal is brittle;

Coal is black;

Coal is hard.

The teacher should lead the class to see that the word "coal" need only be written once, and the three sentences be contracted into one thus:—

Coal is brittle, black, and hard.

The class should read this, and be led to see why commas are necessary where the words "coal is" are left out; also the use of "and" between the last two words.

The same plan should be pursued where the same quality is attributed to several objects.

The class should reproduce and correct as in former lessons.

(3) *An Exercise in discrimination in the use of Words.*

The teacher selects an object, say a house, and lets the class apply to it any descriptive term they can think of as applicable to any house.

Then let them select all the terms that might possibly be applied to any one house, and thus draw out a description of two or more houses from the attributes they have given.

As the vocabulary of the class at the age at which the above lessons should be given is usually very limited, the stock of words at their command should be increased as far as possible. This may be done by writing out lists of names expressive of action, and of objects.

(4) *Sentences containing Words expressing Action.*

(a) The subject and action complete the sense. The teacher writes on the blackboard a list of words expressing action, as walks, plays, skips, etc. The class, with

teacher's help, forms these into sentences by adding the name of an object or animal, *e.g.*—

The child walks ;

The boy plays ;

The girl skips.

Several sentences should be given both in the singular and plural.

(*b*) Sentences, in which besides the subject and action, an additional word is required to complete the sense, *e.g.*—

She opens—the gate ;

The squirrel climbed—the tree ;

I hold—the slate.

Variety may be given to this exercise by leading the class to find out how many qualifying words may be added to a sentence.

The course of instruction given above will insensibly develop the perception of the nature of the principal parts of speech, and will prepare the mind for grammatical analysis at a later date.

(iv.) SHOPPING.

SKETCH OF A LESSON ON A YARD MEASURE.

First Lesson.

Bring before the class pieces of ribbon of different lengths, coloured wool, string, etc. Tell the class you are going to keep shop, and they are to come and buy from you.

We will suppose that mother sends for some ribbon with which to trim a hat, and though *she* knows how much she will want, the shopwoman does not. If word be sent that a “long” or “short” piece is wanted, will the shopwoman know how long or short the piece is to be?—No.

Teacher measures off a yard, saying she thinks that length will do, and holding it up before the class tells the children that a piece of anything of the same length as that is said to be a "yard." See that the word is correctly pronounced.

Cut the ribbon into halves. Ask what has been done ; let the class say how much of the yard is in one piece of the ribbon ; how much in the other. What name was given to the whole length ?—A yard. What, then, can we say the half of it is ?—A half-yard. How many half-yards are there in a yard ?—Two. Repeat "Two half-yards make one yard." Work out the quarters in the same way.

Second Lesson.

After a rapid recapitulation of the former lesson tell the class that sometimes a very small length of anything is wanted, much smaller than a quarter of a yard, so we have to give these small lengths a name.

Take a quarter of a yard, and fold it into nine equal lengths, letting the class count the number of folds. Cut off one of these, the class saying how many you have cut off and how many are left. How many folds are in the quarter of a yard ?—Nine. Tell them we call each of these nine lengths an "inch." Write the word on the board. Question as to how many inches there are in the quarter.—Nine. To be written on board, and class to repeat, "9 inches make a quarter of a yard." Then put two quarters side by side, and ask how many inches there are in each quarter. What do 9 and 9 make ?—18. Therefore how many inches are there in half-yard ?

Place three quarters side by side. Question as to number of inches in three quarters. Do the same with four quarters.

During the progress of the lesson the following should be written on the board, and repeated several times :—

Blackboard Sketch.

9 inches make a quarter of a yard.

18 „ „ half a yard.

27 „ „ three quarters of a yard.

36 „ „ one yard.

EXERCISES.

Question collectively and individually.

Individual children should measure off for other different lengths asked for. Teacher should ask for some part of a yard, and then require class to say how many inches are in it.

The “foot” or any other measure can be worked out in the same way.

In many good private Kinder-garten Schools this measuring work leads up to what is called “Home Geography.”

There is a proposition, for instance, that the children shall measure the entrance, or schoolroom. But before that can be done it is necessary for them to learn the measures that people use for such a purpose. The alacrity with which this is done, in the manner indicated above, contrasts very pleasantly with the committing to memory of the same “tables” for use at some distant and indefinite period.

The measures having been learned, and the tests explained to the top class of an Infants’ School, the young surveyors and their teacher set to work. When they have measured the room, they “plot” it, which they can

manage to do very fairly if they have been previously accustomed to the useful Kinder-garten scored slates or books.

In doing this they realize what is often a puzzle, at first, to much older persons unaccustomed to consider such things—viz. how a “plan” or “map” represents the surrounding buildings or country, and they have thus gained another practical experience. The class-rooms are taken next with their contents, tables, desks, forms, etc.; then the play-ground, next the road or street; and so on. All this leads up to the similar work of Standard I.

The following will indicate to teachers what *kinds* of subjects are suitable for these exercises:—

1. Animals (domestic).
2. Flowers, fruits.
3. Objects in School, Home, Church, etc.
4. Tools used in needlework, by roadmender, butcher, blacksmith, etc.
5. Vehicles.
6. Uses of doors and windows, etc.
7. Things we eat, drink, and wear.
8. Actions of the body.
9. What houses are made of.
10. Parts of the body.
11. Milk, butter, cheese, curds, whey.
12. Clothing of animals.
13. Fire and water.

It is a very much disputed point among teachers of Infants whether hard words, such as malleable, opaque, etc., should be used. Those who use them contend that the children readily learn and understand them, and even in the “Science and Art of Teaching” it is asserted that infants are easily reconciled to the length of “hippopotamus,” and that a child will not object to “malleable,” “promontory,” etc. The author thinks that such terms are decidedly objectionable—

(1) Because infants can have only auditory, not visual memory of these words.

(2) Because it is not a question of *length* only, but of accent as well: thus "hippopotamus" is not difficult merely because it contains twelve letters, but because it might be pronounced hippopotámus, etc.

(3) Because shorter and easier words can be substituted for "perpendicular," "horizontal," "malleable," etc.

V. MARCHING.

MARCHING exercises, accompanied by singing (tables and school songs with marching rhythms), should also form, in schoolroom and play-ground, one of the "appropriate and varied occupations."

The following are good marching songs for Infant Schools:—"The Brooklet"; "Hop about, pretty Sparrow"; "Stitch, stitch, stitch"; "Come here, little Robin"; "How sweetly does the Time"; "I love the sunny days."

Marching is rarely well done in Infant Schools, and generally speaking female junior teachers are ignorant of what really constitutes good marching drill, and pull and lead the children about in a manner distressing to witness. The eye and voice, here as elsewhere in school, should be the instruments of rule. A "smart" lad should be chosen for leading file. The word of command should be preceded by "mark time; one, two" (or "left, right"), so as to give the "time" of the step. Free motion from the hip, with swing of the leg from it as from a pivot, should replace the usual treadmill style of "goose step" due to close crowding. The "distances" should be well chosen (sufficient for a file to pass through without interrupting the traversed file). The children should not "dig their heels" into the floor; the only legitimate "tread" is the fall of the ball of the foot on the floor in un-

accelerated pace. The arms should be kept at the side, not "folded behind," and the eyes directed horizontally in front.

Besides learning the meaning of "Right and left turn, right and left about face, right and left counter-march, inwards and outwards," the children should go through stationary gymnastic drill in desks. Special exercises in the latter have been devised by those who have given special attention to the subject; but these must be seen and practised by the teacher in order to be thoroughly learnt. As this cannot be done in country districts, an attempt to make up the deficiency is given below. This consists in the gymnastic stationary exercises suited to children in desks.

While the marching and drill in Boys' Schools during the last ten years have become immensely improved, under the instruction of drill-sergeants paid by School Boards, and that of Head and Assistant Teachers who have joined volunteers' corps, the marching of Infant Schools remains pretty nearly *in statu quo ante*.

This is because little attention, comparatively speaking, has been paid to the subject. The following hints may be useful to Infant Teachers, and are based on actual experience gained from experiments made in large Infant Schools for several years past:—

ATTENTION.—The first consideration in fixing upon a proper standing posture for class work, or preparatory to marching proper, is the question of stability, or the amount of muscular exercise necessary to maintain a constant standing attitude. Infants are generally taught to stand on a *narrow* base, the centre of gravity falling within the feet placed parallel to each other. Instead of this the toes should be inclined outward (at an angle of about 45°), and it is as easy in doing this to "toe the line," as with the toes placed contiguously together. Some teachers object

that the class looks less symmetrical thus placed, but this is only because they have fixed their notions in a conventional groove.

KEEPING STEP.—Here the motion should proceed from the hips, and not from the knee; the leg should freely swing with a pendulum motion, and not rise and fall as in ascending a treadmill.

DISTANCES.—The children should maintain *equal* distances from each other. One very powerful cause of the "treadmill" style of marching is the too close distances that are allowed to be kept.

IN LINE.—There is no other proper way of maintaining line except that used in the army; every child (except the leader) should "*look at the middle of the back of the head of the child in front,*" the child should not be allowed to look at the floor or at its own feet; and hence chalk lines, or brass nails, should be eschewed as means of direction.

CARRIAGE OF BODY.—It is impossible that the muscles of the back and hips—used in marching and maintaining an erect and graceful carriage—can be properly brought into play if the arms be crossed either in front or behind. The arms should hang down at the sides, and be allowed to swing slightly to front and rear, and not be pinned at the sides. The eyes should be directed to their *own level* in front, not at an angle of forty-five degrees above or to the floor below.

WORDS OF COMMAND.—The *attention* should always be gained previous to the actual issue of command to march, and the *time* should be fixed. Of course all should begin with the left foot and end on the right, and the pace should not be allowed to accelerate. To prevent this the time should be occasionally repeated; thus, "left, left," or marching songs should be used. Care should be taken that the songs *are* marching songs, that is, the *time* should

be such as to accentuate the tread. Many rhythms do not allow of this.

EVOLUTIONS.—These should consist of marching in straight lines from galleries to desks and open floor spaces, and *vice versâ*, and of “right and left counter-marching outwards and inwards.” All the movements should be effected by word of command, or, better still, by the use of Mrs. Fielden’s “Signal,” and the children should never be pulled and dragged about. A child who is alert, quick of eye, ear, and foot, should occasionally be chosen for leader ; and this position should be considered a post of honour, given only under promotion. The babies may be allowed to take hold of each other by their frocks, etc., but not so with years five to six, or six to seven.

If the foregoing recommendations are patiently worked out, an Infant School of 300 children can be “changed” or dismissed in three minutes with quietness and symmetry of movement.

WORK OF THE STAFF.—As a rule, it will be found that only experienced teachers are able to take the *entire* charge of the marching of the school, in “changes” in the school-room, and in drill in the play-ground. This is because such a duty requires a very quick eye, and perfect self-command at moments when disorder and confusion are ready to break out, through inattention or ignorance of the “leaders” especially. A weak commander is then apt to “lose her head,” and fly to the rescue with her *hands*, instead of retrieving matters quickly and noiselessly, by word of command or “signal.”

On the other hand, *all* the teachers require to be taught to direct the “changes ;” and all should, therefore, occasionally take the command either of a brigade (of two or three classes), or of an entire room ; the younger having permission to fall back upon the Head Teacher in moments of difficulty. But, whoever may have the general com-

mand, the *individual* teachers of classes should direct the movements of their *own* classes, except on *review* occasions, say once a fortnight. This should be the case even with the older Pupil Teachers and ex-Pupil Teachers, though a *junior* may have been put in charge of the school generally; and no teacher should think that her age or standing exempts her from the same prompt obedience, as that given by the children themselves. Whatever the class does, the *teacher* of the class should do.

THE PLAY-GROUND.—This is the best arena for the exercise of the Infants. (1) Because it gives a greater latitude and freedom of action, especially for the swinging, pendulum-like motion of the leg from the hip, as distinguished from the treadmill, up-and-down “goose-step.” (2) Because good air (comparatively) may be combined with exercise. The latter is a very important consideration, as one of the ends aimed at in drill is the withdrawal of blood from the congested brain, and the oxygenation of the blood sent to the limbs to repair waste of tissue.

The difficulties in the use of the play-ground are—

(1) It cannot be used at all in bad weather (rain, snow, etc.), nor in winter time because of the cold.

(2) The play-ground is not always free from observation from the outside.

The latter difficulty may often be ignored, if the teachers will banish *mauvaise honte*, and proceed with their task, indifferent to outsiders. Very frequently a school obtains a good reputation in a locality because of this drill, which is really appreciated by all who are not merely gazing from silly curiosity.

The exercises in the play-ground should consist of file-marching; marching in sections of two; right and left counter-marching inwards and outwards; marching along the boundary lines of hollow squares, etc.

THE VOICE.—The most necessary instruction that can

perhaps be given, is to avoid a high sounding *military* tone of command. Noise begets noise in nothing more than in drill. If the voice be kept low, but clear and penetrative, not too high and certainly not gruff, the attention of children will always be kept on the stretch; and this is absolutely necessary to prevent carelessness and confusion. It is incredible, except to the initiated, how low a tone suffices to reach the children in this part of school work.

Very frequently action songs can be used along with the marching proper; but the tunes should be strictly suited *both* to the marching and to the action. Two or three of these will suffice, and they will be found to add greatly to the delight and interest of the children in the marching generally.

Many of these are published in the various books of Infant Songs and Tunes, but it is difficult to give instructions for the accompanying movements. The teacher's own ingenuity and dramatic power will be her best guides, but *suggestiveness* is the principal consideration. (*Vide* Major's "Original Songs and Tunes.")

The following have been found great favourites:—"The Mill Wheel"; "The Clock"; "The busy little Mother"; "Bread-making"; "The Drummer Boy"; "The Fire Brigade"; "The Babes in the Wood"; "See me, I am a little child"; "A little bird built," etc.

DRILL EXERCISES.

The following exercises, designed for infant classes by a drill-sergeant, and employed with great success in a large group of Infant Schools, will be found useful to teachers in Infant Schools.

They comprise five "Practices," and the orders issued by

the teachers are—Practice No. I. (1, 2, etc.), No. II. (1, 2, 3, etc.), the children obeying by performing the gymnastic exercises set down.

It will be found that consideration has been given to the muscles required to be exercised, and to the small space that can be allotted to children assembled in desks or on galleries.

Practice No. I.

1. Hands raised above heads, palms in front.
2. Hands lowered to shoulders, with elbows bent.
3. Arms extended from shoulders, sideways, horizontally, palms of hands facing floor.
4. Arms dropped to side.

Practice No. II.

1. Arms extended in front, horizontally, forefingers touching each other, thumbs beneath, palms facing floor.
2. Hands clenched under chin, arms touching each other as far downwards as possible.
3. Arms and shoulders thrown smartly backwards, elbows kept close to the sides, hands still clenched.
4. Arms thrown out sideways, horizontally, fingers extended.
5. Arms dropped smartly to the sides.

Practice No. III.

1. Bring fingers (touching each other) to middle line of the top of the head, children rising on toes.
2. Fingers dropped on shoulders, feet resuming firm flat position on floor.
3. Arms thrown out from shoulders, horizontally, sideways, palms of hands facing upwards.

4. Stand at "attention" (head erect, shoulders thrown backwards, hands close to sides).

Practice No. IV.

1. Arms extended in front horizontally, hands clenched, and meeting in front.
2. Arms thrown back and extended, horizontally, sideways.
3. Arms swung from front to back and circularly, joints at elbow stiff, all movement proceeding from shoulders.

Practice No. V.

1. Arms thrown out at sides, thumbs extended.
2. Palms of hands to meet smartly in front, with a clap.

DESK DRILL (WHEN CHILDREN ARE CROWDED).

Practice No. I.

1. Hands clenched under chin, arms meeting.
2. Arms slowly drawn back, hands still clenched, and elbows kept close to the side.

Practice No. II.

1. Hands thrown up vertically.
2. Elbows brought smartly to the sides.
3. Hands thrown in front, fingers extended.
4. Clap, smartly, the palms together.
5. Hands behind (or fold behind).

CHAPTER VIII.

VARIED OCCUPATIONS (*Continued*).

VI. CHILDREN'S TOYS.

In addition to the preceding occupations, sets of play-things (dinner and tea services, etc.) are frequently used with profit in the Babies' Room; and the children are taught how to lay out the table, set toy furniture about in an imaginary room, etc. Children do not lose time in this, the awakened intelligence repays the teacher's labour, even in mere school routine, in the next and succeeding year of Infant School life. For want of this, infants are frequently seen asleep with their heads hanging backwards over seat rails, in the most uncomfortable and dangerous postures, or looking and feeling wretched and listless, when, in virtue of their childhood, they ought to be smiling and happy. Many Babies' Rooms are Chambers of Horror, where a womanly, motherly Head Mistress is not at the head of affairs. In *this* respect married women are often very desirable teachers of Infant Schools, since practically, as well as theoretically, they know how to sympathize with the little "dots in the handwriting of God."

VII. FORM.

The light radiating, and reflected from an external object, passing through the pupil of the eye, is focussed upon the retina, and produces a certain state of consciousness

as if a picture of light, shade, colour, and relief were present in the brain itself.

At first all objects are seen by infants as if projected on one plane, there is no discrimination of distance, no conception of solidity. The child would grasp at the sun, and strike its own face in trying to do so.

“ And heaven is as near as it's own mother's face is.”

MRS. BROWNING.

There is at all times a great difference in different individuals in the power of discriminating the outlines of objects, and it is only the trained artist that can rightly seize and reproduce these. But the power wants awakening and strengthening at as early a date as possible, for upon it will partly depend the facility of drawing and writing.

The most common mistake made in teaching Form in Infant Schools is the parrot-like repetition of *verbal* representations of form. It is sufficient in infancy if the *facts* are discerned ; the *nomenclature* may wisely be left to a later date. By this we mean, that if children are taught to know what a circle, triangle, an oblong or rectangle, an ellipse, perpendicular or horizontal lines, etc., *are*, the mere *names* of these can be omitted. Or if names must be given, instead of perpendicular we should use upright, instead of triangle, three-cornered shape ; round instead of a circle, and so on.

The lessons on Form are best given in conjunction with Kinder-garten exercises, but where these are not made use of, the box of wooden circles, triangles, etc., should be used. These concrete tangible figures which can be handled separately, are very much to be preferred to mere “ Outlines of Form ” on cards, which are more abstract to the child.

Size.—The Lessons on Form should include the teaching of size and the meaning of small, large ; and this should

lead up to the use of standards, a foot rule, an inch, and yard tape, a halfpenny and penny, a 3*d.*, 4*d.*, 6*d.*, 1*s.*, 2*s.*, 2*s.* 6*d.*, and 5*s.* silver coins, a half-sovereign, a sovereign, a pint, quart, gallon.

Next the *dimensions* should be taught, Length, Breadth or Width, Depth or Thickness; with the meaning of long, short, broad, narrow, deep, shallow. For this purpose the rule, tape, and strings should be used.

These lessons may be illustrated by comparisons made in the room, as of long and short forms, wide and narrow desks, thick and thin books, etc.

Depth and length may be compared and contrasted. In depth we look from above, as into a deep pond or well; in height we look from below, as at a tall or high chimney, house, etc.

The children may be also taught to divide a line on the board, pieces of paper or string into halves, quarters, and thirds, to mark off as accurately as they can 1, 2, 3, etc., inches, 1 foot, 2 feet, 3 feet; to give the length of desks; the length and breadth of the schoolroom.

For reference, a sheet of cardboard with one inch, one foot (divided into inches), and a yard (divided into feet), may be kept on the walls.

The lessons on form should include the teaching of the meaning of perpendicular (upright), horizontal (level), and slanting. For reference, the walls of the room may be used to teach "upright," the floor for "level," and the galleries for "slanting." The capital letters will also illustrate these as, A for slanting and level: B for upright, etc. These will also introduce the meaning of *curved* as distinct from *straight*. The children may be taught to pick out all the capital letters which are—

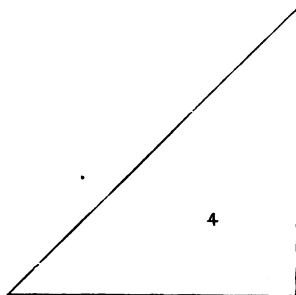
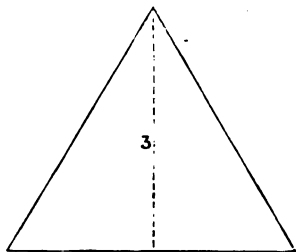
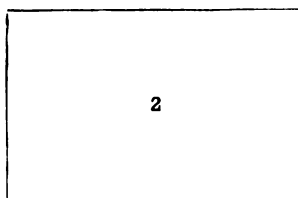
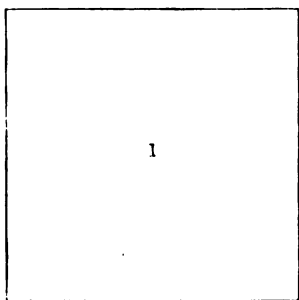
- (1) All straight lines as E, etc.
- (2) All curved lines as O.
- (3) Straight and curved, D, etc.;

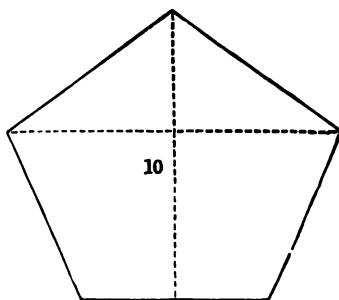
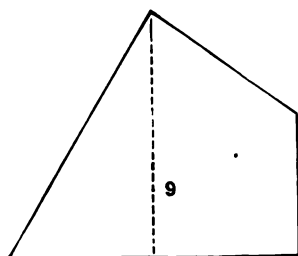
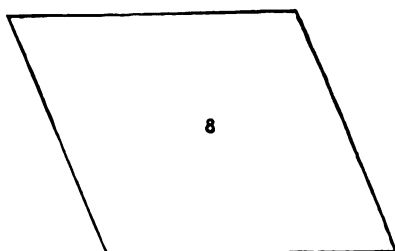
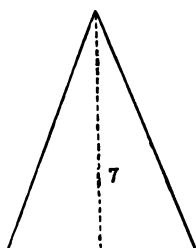
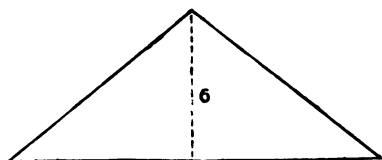
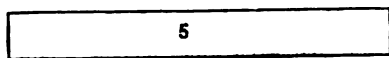
The following exercises can be taught from dictation, and should be drawn in Kinder-garten drawing-books, ruled in squares.

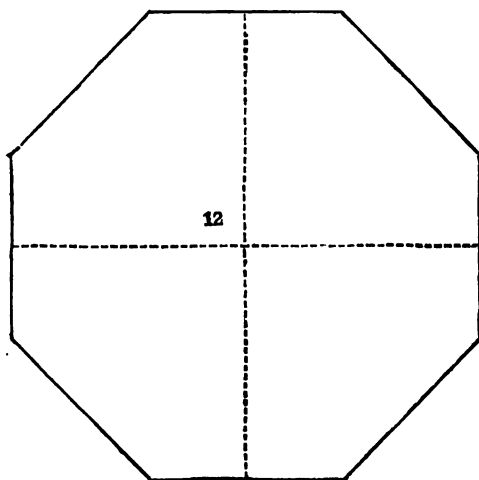
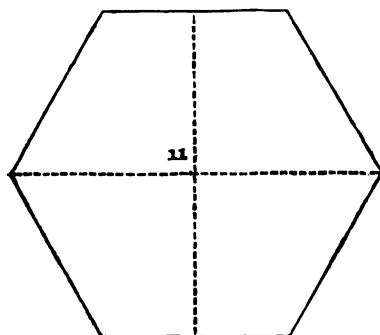
- I. **SQUARE.**—Level lines 6 squares long ; at each end of this an upright line 6 squares long, the upright lines to be joined by a level 6 squares long.
- II. **OBLONG.**—Same directions as above, only 6 by 4.
- III. **EQUAL-SIDE TRIANGLE.**—Level line 6 squares long, upright in middle 5 squares long ; both ends of level to be joined to upright by slanting lines.
- IV. **SQUARE-CORNER TRIANGLE.**—Level line 6 squares long, at one end upright 6 squares long, level to be joined to upright by a slanting line.
- V. **PARALLELOGRAM.**—Same as VIII., but four sides unequal.
- VI. **BLUNT-CORNER TRIANGLE.**—Level line 8 squares long, upright in centre 3 squares long, level to be joined to upright by slanting lines.
- VII. **SHARP-CORNER TRIANGLE.**—Level line 4 squares long, upright in middle 5 squares long, level to be joined to upright by slanting lines.
- VIII. **RHOMB.**—Level line 6 squares long, 5 squares above this a level same length, but commenced 2 squares to the left of the lower level line ; the 2 level lines to be joined by slanting lines.
- IX. **FOUR-SIDE FIGURE.**—Level line 6 squares, upright in middle 5 squares, upright at right end of level line 3 squares, points to be joined by slanting lines.
- X. **PENTAGON.**—Level line 4 squares, upright in middle 6 squares, $3\frac{1}{2}$ squares from lower level line, a level 7 squares long ; lower level to be joined to upper by slanting lines, also upper one with upright.
- XI. **SIX-SIDE FIGURE.**—Level line 4 squares, upright in

middle 7 squares, level line 4 squares, at upper end of upright $3\frac{1}{2}$ squares from level lines, draw another 8 squares long, having 4 squares on each side of upright; join the two ends of this upright with the level lines above and below by slanting lines.

- XII. EIGHT-SIDE FIGURE.—Level line 4 squares long, upright in middle 10 squares, crossing this at middle level line 10 squares long, leaving 5 squares on each side, level line at upper end of upright same as lower end, upright at each end of middle level lines 4 squares long, leaving 2 squares on each side; join the level line with the uprights by slanting lines.







VIII. COLOUR.

While the eye and ear are generally occupied in all the work of school life, there are two special directions in which the eye is occupied in an Infant School, viz.: in

PART I. M

learning Colour and Form. The Kinder-garten is the best vehicle for teaching Colour ; in the absence of it colour sheets, worsteds, ribbons, beads, marbles, etc., may be used.

The colours cannot be described or defined, they have to be seen and named : the ultimate appeal is to the individual consciousness. If the latter is defective through imperfection of sight, as in "colour blindness," there is no ultimate appeal. Thus there are certain grown-up persons who cannot distinguish accurately and at sight between green and red, and others between green and blue. A more common imperfection is that of not being able to discriminate nicely between different shades of the same colour.

The teacher should be aware from the first that there is no absolute red, green, blue ; these are merely relative terms ; and the various colours of the spectrum—orange, red, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet, insensibly merge into each other ; and between them, or from combinations of them, a host of other colours are obtained—mauve, magenta, etc., etc. '

Besides teaching the children to name colours at sight, they should also be taught the harmony of colours in juxtaposition : how some are pleasing and others glaring by ill-chosen contrast. This has to be felt before it can be appreciated ; and judging from the colours in dress chosen by some persons, it is apparently never felt by some.

Children naturally like strong excitation of visual impression, as they like loud noises, violent exercise, sweets, preserves, etc. ; and hence striking colours like scarlet, red, etc., are often preferred by them to neutral tints. This want of a "quiet" taste should be eradicated, if possible, in school, and the love of the harmonies of nature, of fruit, foliage, flowers, skies, landscapes, trees, etc., implanted instead.

To cultivate habits of observation and comparison, appeal should be constantly made to present objects in teaching colour, as to the colour of a dress, pinafore, ribbon, hair, eyes, sky, walls, etc.; and to objects within the child's easy recognition, as the contents of a fruiterer's shop (oranges, lemons, apples, pears, plums, tomatoes, etc.), the grass, the wood, window-curtains, bird-cage, rainbow, moon, the sea, bricks, window-sashes, illuminated text, pictures of animals, the animals themselves, etc.

Moreover, the teaching of colour and of form should be associated together, remembering that it is by painting in oil, and water colouring, that we represent form to a great extent.

The plan used for teaching Colour in the Home and Colonial Training Schools may be recommended. This may be summarized as follows :—

Let the child match from mingled patterns the one selected by teacher from colour sheet, the rest of the class passing judgment on the effort. The patterns may be variously coloured wafers, bits of ribbon, woollen threads, beads, etc.

The *names* of these colours should next be taught from the patterns, colour sheet, and objects inside and outside the school. Having a name given by the teacher, the children should next select objects corresponding to these names. Lastly, the children should give the name of the colour pointed out by the teacher in an object or on the card; and the colour of an object named by the teacher, the object itself not being present.

Beads may then be strung by the children according to the colours dictated by the teacher; the same should be done with the weaving strips (Kinder-garten). Thus the teacher may say, "Thread two red beads, one blue, three white, etc., etc."

MODEL LESSON ON GREEN COLOUR.

Object chosen by the teacher: A green leaf.

(1) From mixed collection of red, white, etc., beads, marbles, wafers, worsted threads, let different children select all like the colour chosen for the lesson (leaf).

(2) Let children name objects with same colour in the schoolroom, and which they can see through the school windows—trees, plants, grass, ribbon, dress.

(3) Some of the worsted threads, beads, etc., are green, but there is a difference—some are dark green, others light green, apple green, pea green, sage green, etc.

(4) What part of the tree is green?—The leaves. A tree is made of root, stem, branches, and leaves; only the last are green. Are these always green?—Not in autumn; then they are brown, golden, red, etc. They are lightest green in spring, when young and tender, becoming darker as they get older.

(5) What part of grass is green?—All but the roots and flowers. The stem is green, so unlike trees. What colour does the green wheat take when it ripens?—Brown, white, red. Same with fruits (apples, plums, gooseberries, currants, etc.)

(6) Flowers are of various colours, but rarely green. If they were of the same colour as the foliage and stems, they would not be so well seen by bees and men.

(7) Green is a colour that does not tire the eye. Some of the other colours do so. So most of the colours in the field and garden are green, and we do not tire of looking at them.

GOVERNMENT QUESTIONS.—VARIED OCCUPATIONS
(SCHOLARSHIP).

1. Think of some Fable; write it out in your own words, and explain the lesson it is intended to teach in

words adapted to the comprehension of children, with illustrations from school life.

2. Write out some story illustrating courage—in the way in which you tell it to a class—when one or more of the children had shown some foolish timidity.

3. What games in the play-ground would you encourage? Let your answers show that you understand how to treat children of different ages.

4. Give a full account of any oral lesson that you remember to have given. What preparations did you make for it, what apparatus had you, and what use did you make of the blackboard?

5. Name some stories from English History that you have found to be most attractive to young children, and explain simply the causes of their attractiveness.

CHAPTER IX.

SINGING.

AMONG the essential and optional subjects for which payment is made in Infant Schools, Singing and Needlework are included. It is difficult to decide whether, in the estimation of the Education Department and of H.M.'s Inspectors, these will be included in the appropriate and varied occupations. But it is certain that they should form part of the ordinary work of the Infant School.

I. SINGING.

INSTRUCTIONS AS TO EXAMINATION IN SINGING FOR GRANTS.
UNDER ARTICLES 106 (*d*) AND 109 (*d*).

“February 14, 1883.

“(1) If during the examination the Inspector should notice that one or two voices are leading the bulk of the children, such voices must be silenced.

“(2) Teachers may be allowed to start, but not to join in, the singing, except when adding (a bass, or) independent part, to the song-test.

“(3) [In Girls' Schools the examiner will often save much time and trouble by asking a female teacher to sing the passages given as ear-tests.]

“(4) As Inspectors may find that the application of every test to each of the four divisions will occupy more time than can be fairly allotted to this one subject, it may suffice for the purpose of recommending the larger grant of one shilling, if the Inspectors apply two of the tests to each division.

“(5) The staff-notation tests will be found equally applicable to the systems of “moveable *Do*.” A complete set of tests under the tonic sol-fa system has been given, closely corresponding to those of the staff-notation.

“(6) [In schools where both the tonic sol-fa and staff-notations are taught, the three lower divisions may be presented for examination on the tonic sol-fa method, and the highest on the staff system.]

“(7) The examiner may, if necessary, avail himself of the assistance of the teacher, in playing or singing the ear-tests to the children.

“(8) The children may sing the song-tests from books containing both words and music.

“(9) Schools applying for the higher grant but failing to secure it, may receive the lower grant of sixpence, if the children can pass the song-tests prescribed below.

“(10) Three songs must be prepared for the song-test in the 1st division [and five in each of the other divisions].

“(11) For the purposes of examination schools may be thus classified:—

1st Division = Infants above five years of age, and
below Standard I.

2nd „ = Standard I.

[3rd „ = Standards II. and III.

4th „ = Standard IV. and upwards.]

“N.B.—(1) In schools examined before May, 1884, each Standard may be presented in the division lower than that here assigned to it.

“(2) It is not necessary that the classification for singing

should correspond exactly with the ordinary division into Standards.

“(3) The 1st and 2nd divisions may, if preferred, be grouped together both for teaching and examination.”

PART I.—SCHOOLS USING THE STAFF NOTATION.

“DIVISION I.

“*Note Test.*—(1) To sing one by one *in any order* as pointed out by the examiner the notes of the key-chord of C (*Do*), namely, C (*Do*), E (*Mi*), G (*Sol*), C (*Do*). (See line 2 of the first musical example.)

“*Song Test.*—(2) To sing sweetly an easy school song or action song previously prepared.

“[The compass of this song should not exceed the limit of an octave, say from C to C, or D to D, in the treble stave, and the words should be such as the children can understand.]

“DIVISION II.

“*Note Test.*—(1) To sing slowly, as the examiner points to the notes and using the sol-fa syllables, the ascending and descending notes of the scale of C (*Do*), the notes of the key-chord of C (*Do*) [C (*Do*), E (*Mi*), G (*Sol*), C (*Do*)], in any order, and also small groups of consecutive notes of the scale of C as written by the examiner.

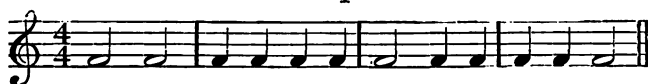
Example.





"Time Test.—(2) (a) To sing on one sound, to the syllable 'laa,' an exercise in $\frac{2}{2}$ or $\frac{4}{4}$ time, which shall include minims and crotchets.

Example.



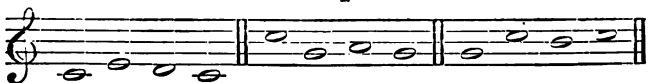
"(b) Or, to name the value of the same notes rhythmically and in time, without singing them; thus,

Minim, minim, | Crotchet, crotchet, crotchet crotchet |

Minim, crotchet, crotchet, | Crotchet, crotchet, minim |

"Ear Test.—(3) To repeat a simple phrase of not more than four notes, using the syllable 'laa,' after hearing the examiner sing or play it twice through.

Example.



"Song Test.—(4) To sing in unison or in two parts, if preferred, in good time and tune, and sweetly, a school song (set to words) previously prepared."

PART II.—FOR SCHOOLS USING THE TONIC SOL-FA METHOD
AND NOTATION.

“DIVISION I.

“(1) To sing from the examiner’s pointing on the modulator, the tones of a *Doh* chord in any order, using the sol-fa syllables.

“(2) To sing sweetly an easy school song or action song previously prepared.

“The compass of the music should if possible lie between C and D¹, and the words should be such as children can understand.

“DIVISION II.

“*Note Test.*—(1) To sol-fa slowly from the examiner’s pointing on the modulator, in several keys (the key-tone in each being given), the tones of the *Doh* chord in any order, and the other tones of the scale in stepwise succession.

Example.

d m s d' s m s d m r d m s l s f m s l t d'

“*Time Test.*—(2) To sing on one tone to the syllable ‘*laa*,’ an exercise including one-pulse and two-pulse tones, in two-pulse or four-pulse measure.

Example.

| 1 : 1 | 1 : — | 1 : — | 1 : 1 | 1 : — ||

“*Ear Test.*—(3) To imitate a simple phrase of not more than four notes, using the syllable ‘*laa*,’ after hearing the examiner sing or play it twice through.

Example.

d n r d || d s l s || s d t d ||

“*Song Test.*—(4) To sing in unison or in two parts, if preferred, in good time and tune, and sweetly, a school song (set to words) previously prepared.”

The subjoined scheme for teaching tonic sol-fa has been drawn up for the Infant Schools of the Leicester School Board by Mr. A. Watkins, Music and Pupil Teacher Instructor (Centre Scheme) :—

“VOCAL MUSIC.

“Vocal Music should be taught in accordance with the following Scheme :—

“IN INFANT SCHOOLS.

“DIVISION I.—*Children above 5 years of age and below Standard I.*

“I. APPARATUS REQUIRED—

(a) Modulator.

(b) ‘Second Linnet.’

“II. TIME REQUIRED—Daily lesson or lessons.

“TUNE.—

(a) To sing from the Teacher’s pointing and pattern on the modulator the sol-fa note of exercises 1 to 20 in the ‘Second Linnet.’

(b) To sing, from the teacher’s pointing on the modulator, the tones of the *Doh* chord in any order, using the sol-fa syllables.

(c) To sing similar exercises from the manual signs.

(d) To sing sweetly three easy school songs.

"Great care must be taken that the tender vocal organs are not injured by—

- (1) Loud and coarse singing.
- (2) Straining after notes beyond their limited range.
- (3) Slow and sustained singing.

"The music should not go higher than the *Doh*¹ in key D, nor lower than the *Doh* in the same key.

"Action songs are especially suited for Infant Schools."

DIVISION II., STANDARD I.

"Tune.

"(1) To sol-fa slowly from the teacher's pointing on the modulator, in different keys (the key-tone in each case having been given), the tones of the *Doh* chord in any order, and the other tones of the scale in stepwise succession.

"(2) To sing similar exercises from the manual signs.

"(3) To sing similar exercises of two or three tones from dictation. By dictation is meant, that the teacher having given the key-tone shall name some notes, and require the children to sing the sounds represented by these notes.

"(4) Ear Tests—

- (a) To imitate a simple phrase of not more than four notes, using the syllable 'laa' after hearing it sung twice.
- (b) To tell the tone *Doh*, *Me*, or *Soh*, on hearing it sung three times to the syllable 'laa,' the key-tone having been sung.

"Time.

"(1) To sing in correct time Exercises 1 to 10 of the School Charts on one tone to the syllable 'laa.'

"(2) To sing in correct time on one tone 'laa' an exercise written on the blackboard, including one-pulse and two-pulse tones, in two-pulse or four-pulse measure.

"Time and Tune.

"(1) To sing in time and tune any one of the exercises 1 to 10 of School Charts, the time having been first learnt.

"(2) To sing as above a similar exercise from the blackboard.

"(3) To sing sweetly in unison or in two parts, in good time and tune, five school songs.

"Voice Training.

"(1) The teacher must insist on soft singing, with mouths well opened.

"(2) A short daily exercise to be given in singing the chord of the tonic (d m s d') in keys C and D, very softly to syllable 'ah,' sustaining each sound about a second.

"(3) Scale exercises in keys C and D. These should be practised downwards and very softly. Children who sing out of tune must listen attentively: they will in a short time be able to join the rest."

In singing one shilling per child will be paid "if the scholars are satisfactorily taught to sing by note, i.e. by the standard, or any other recognized, notation; or sixpence if they are satisfactorily taught to sing by ear." The teaching of singing by note must be limited to the upper portion of the Infant School, and cannot be required from the lowest sections. As it is nearly impossible satis-

factorily to teach singing by note in an Infant School, according to the Staff Notation, the Tonic Sol-fa will have to be used. This requires special training of teachers from an expert, and the author must be content to refer his readers to the publications of Curwen's Tonic Sol-fa Agency, and to the instructions given above.

SCHOOL SONGS.

NECESSITY.—As infants are unable to sustain very prolonged thought without incurring a risk of undue cerebral excitement, and consequent exhaustion ; and as for the same reason they cannot find *rest in mere change of work* as in the upper departments, it is necessary that special means of relaxing the mind and developing the body should be sought in their behalf in school life. These are secured by *singing and marching*.

The *ends* aimed at are the following—

- (1) To *afford relief* between the lessons.
- (2) To *please the ear* with the jingle of rhyme, with simple melody and very easy harmonies. The latter can be secured by a few very simple rounds of three parts sung by different classes, which have been found very effective in some good Infant Schools.
- (3) To *inculcate* lessons of *morality, truthfulness, honesty*, etc.
- (4) To *cultivate the ear* and general intelligence.
- (5) To give *graphic conceptions* of *industrial mechanical arts*, in action songs, where making bread, etc., is represented by characteristic action movements.
- (6) To *develop the muscular movements* in rhyme, and to train the will (in action songs).
- (7) To *cultivate the affections*, and especially love of father, mother, brothers, and sisters, and kindness to animals.

(8) To train to habits of *obedience*—the execution of the action movements being short, sharp, and decisive.

(9) To *strengthen the memory*.

(10) To increase the *vocabulary*.

(11) To strengthen the power and grace of *expression*.

(12) To aid in *keeping time* in marching.

For these purposes the songs should be *simple* but not *silly*; and false jingle should not be substituted for true rhyme. Neither the language nor the subject-matter should be beyond the grasp of the children.

The abstract and didactic should as much as possible be avoided; the lessons to be inculcated being cast in a concrete narrative form.

Some Infant School Teachers surrender all power in this matter, because, physically, or from want of training, they have not a good ear for music. But in Infant Schools the melodies are so simple that, if courage and perseverance be shown, there are few who would not succeed, though their own voices may not be very musical. The teacher of every class should be expected to sing with the children. Of course no good teacher will think the task puerile because of the simplicity of the words, in the face of the educational advantages above referred to.

The following Songs for Infant Schools have been much liked by the children :—"Robin, dear Robin"; "Catch the Sunshine"; "The Old Black Cat"; "The Cuckoo"; "Star of Peace"; "The Brooklet"; "The Wind"; "Snow"; "Our little feet"; "Little Good-for-nothing"; "Watching for Pa."

RECITATIONS.—These should be *Class* and *Individual*.

The same selections will serve for both purposes. Properly used, these recitations will be of immense service in improving expression in reading; in enlarging the vocabulary of the children; in strengthening the memory; in cultivating the affections, especially domestic feelings of

love of parents and of brothers and sisters; in relieving the monotony of mere mechanical grinding in the "3 R's"; in refining the ear; in giving rest and quietness in the school; in encouraging a loud, clear tone of speech; in giving direct information on the subjects treated of; and in imparting moral and religious impressions.

In making a selection of pieces for recitation, the teacher should principally attend to—

- (1) Simplicity of *words*.
- (2) Simplicity of *diction*.
- (3) Simplicity of *illustration*.
- (4) In unity of place, time, and event; the whole piece dealing with only one principal thought, or occurrence.
- (5) In graphic representation of the concrete, untrammelled by abstract or didactic teaching.
- (6) In an obvious moral which infants can appreciate and sympathize with.
- (7) Recurrent, easily caught rhymes.

The language may be more difficult than the children could *read*, but not more difficult than they can *understand*. Remember in this connection that the vocabulary of infants is both more and less limited than that of their books.

As types of good selections we may enumerate "The Pet Lamb," "We are Seven," and for prose many of the simpler fables.

"There is no single subject that tests the efficiency and intelligence of a school so well as repetition. Well taught and understood, it brings out articulation, expression, memory, apprehension, comprehension, taste, and imagination."—MR. TEMPLE.

CHAPTER X.

NEEDLEWORK.

THE development of the national system of Education has been most marked in the encouragement which it has given to simultaneous instruction, in collective lessons and in the "3 R's." During the last two or three years, under the able auspices of Mrs. Floyer, the teaching of Needlework also by simultaneous methods has been introduced into many schools with excellent results. The method of drill pursued is fully explained in Mrs. Floyer's handbook on the subject (Griffith & Farran). This side of the subject is referred to in the Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors.

"No just progress can be made in the general teaching of needlework in a school without effective simultaneous teaching throughout the classes, and it will be the duty of the Inspector specially to inquire into the needlework of infants. Where any uniform failure in the teaching of these classes occurs, you will report that the subject is not properly taught."

REQUIREMENTS FOR GOVERNMENT INSPECTION, SCHEDULE
III.—NEEDLEWORK.

GIRLS' AND INFANTS' DEPARTMENTS.

"*Below Standard I.*—Needle drill. Position drill.

"Strips (18 inches by 2 inches) in simple hemming with coloured cotton, in the following order, viz. :—1. Black; 2. Red; 3. Blue.

"Knitting-pin drill.

"A strip knitted (15 inches by 3 inches) in cotton or wool.

"*Standard I.*—(1) Hemming, simple or counter, seaming, felling, *plaiting*. Any garment which can be completed by the above stitches, *e.g.* a child's pinafore, or plain shirt. In small mixed country schools, strips (18 in. by 2 in.) of hemming, etc., may be shown, at the discretion of the managers, in place of a garment.

"(2) Knitting. 2 needles, plain, *e.g.* a strip on which to teach darning in upper Standards, or a comforter.

"*Note.*—(1) The work printed in *italics* is optional.

"(2) Counter-hem is not necessary where seaming can be done.

"(3) Garments must be shown in each Standard, but not necessarily those specified in this Schedule, which are mentioned merely as examples. They must be presented in the same condition as when completed by the scholars.

"(4) As many garments must be shown as there are girls examined, but garments made by more than one child may be presented, provided each garment is entirely made by its own Standard."

**EXERCISES TO BE WORKED IN PRESENCE OF THE INSPECTOR.
(AMENDED SCHEME, MARCH 13, 1883.)**

Infants, Lower Division.	Infants, Upper Division.	Standard I.
<p>A.—To hem 3 inches in one colour.</p> <p><i>*O.—To knit 6 rows of 12 loops previously cast on.</i></p>	<p>A.—To hem 5 inches in one colour.</p> <p>B.—To knit 6 rows of 12 loops previously cast on.</p> <p><i>*O.—To fix and work a hem of 5 inches in one colour.</i></p>	<p>A.—To fix and work in two colours (so as to show a join) a hem of 5 inches.</p> <p>B.—To cast on 12 loops, and knit with chain edge, 12 rows, and cast off.</p> <p>C.—To fix and work a sew and fell seam of 5 inches.</p>

MATERIALS † REQUIRED FOR THE ABOVE EXERCISES.

<p>A.—A piece of calico 5 inches by $2\frac{1}{2}$, fixed for hemming, and coloured cotton.</p> <p><i>*O.—A pair of knitting pins, with 12 loops cast on, and cotton.</i></p>	<p>A.—A piece of calico 5 inches by $2\frac{1}{2}$, fixed for hemming and coloured cotton.</p> <p>B.—A pair of knitting pins, with 12 loops cast on, and cotton or wool.</p> <p><i>*O.—A piece of calico 5 inches by $2\frac{1}{2}$, and coloured cotton.</i></p>	<p>A.—A piece of calico 5 inches by $2\frac{1}{2}$, and cotton of two colours.</p> <p>B.—A pair of knitting pins and cotton or wool.</p> <p>C.—Two pieces of calico 5 inches by $2\frac{1}{2}$, and coloured cotton.</p>
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* Exercise O is optional for managers, may be offered to the inspector, but is not required.

† The material required should be carefully prepared and arranged beforehand. The quantity provided should be sufficient to furnish work for children grouped according to Rule (1), e.g. for 24 children in Standard V. it will be sufficient to have six packets of material prepared for four children in each group.

See Note 5 in Schedule III. of the Code (needlework) as to "fixing" and "casting on."

EXTRACT FROM INSTRUCTIONS TO H.M.'s INSPECTORS.

"It will be seen that considerable reductions have been made in the amount of work required in needlework, and that the obligatory parts of Schedule III. now contain no more work than can be fairly mastered by any Girls' School in which four hours weekly have been devoted to this subject. If any school fails to earn the grant, it will probably be found that such failure is due to bad teaching in the lower Standards, or that the subject has not been taught (as all the other subjects are taught, and as needlework should be taught) to classes as well as to individuals.

"No just progress can be made in the general teaching of needlework in a school without effective simultaneous teaching throughout the classes, and it will be the duty of the Inspector specially to inquire into the needlework of infants, and of the lowest Standards in other schools.

"Where any uniform failure in the teaching of these classes occurs, you will report, even when a grant is not claimed for needlework, that the subject is not properly taught; and it may be well to point out to the managers that a few specimens of garments from the best children do not compensate for imperfect teaching in the lower classes.

"You will in all cases, as heretofore, examine the articles which the children have made during the year; and will satisfy yourself of the genuineness of the specimens by requiring some of the scholars to perform a simple exercise on the day of examination, whether a grant is claimed for needlework under Art. 109 c, or not. In order to ascertain that the teaching has been in accordance with the schedule, it will be needful to require a sufficient number of the scholars in two or more Standards to work specimens of sewing or knitting in your presence. Detailed rules for the conduct of this part of the examination will

be found in Appendix I. When needlework is selected as a class subject, you will not recommend the higher grant of 2s. unless the results of the teaching are clearly 'good.' The lower grant of 1s. may be obtained by the same degree of proficiency as will be required for the grant of 1s. under Art. 109 c."

REQUIREMENTS FOR GOVERNMENT INSPECTION.—
PUPIL TEACHERS (GIRLS).

"First Year.

"(1) A garment in calico, print, or long cloth, showing all the stitches required in Standard IV.

"(2) A hole correctly mended in stocking material.

"(3) A patch, not less than 2 inches square, on old calico or garment of *ditto*.

"(4) A youth's sock.

"Second Year.

"(1) A garment in long cloth or mull muslin, showing all the stitches required in Standard V.

"(2) Grafting and Swiss darning on stocking material, and ladder properly taken up.

"(3) A patch, not less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches square, in old flannel, serge, or woollen, or on a garment of one of these materials.

"(4) A boy's knickerbocker stocking.

"Third Year.

"(1) A garment in long cloth, print, or mull muslin, showing all the stitches required in Standard VI.

"(2) A hole filled in with stocking web stitch, on stocking material, not less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches square.

"(3) A patch on a garment of calico, linen, or mull muslin.

"(4) A pair of knitted baby's boots.

"(5) Pattern of a shirt or night dress (full-size) drawn to scale ($\frac{1}{4}$ size) on sectional paper; quantity and quality of materials to be stated.

"Fourth Year.

"(1) To show three garments, suited to the class of which the Pupil Teacher has charge, cut out and neatly 'fixed' or 'tacked' together.

"(2) A three-cornered (or hedge-tear) darn, the tear not less than 1 inch square, and a cross cut darn, on old calico, flannel, or table linen.

"(3) A roll or piece of sectional paper ($\frac{1}{4}$ inch scale) representing a piece of calico or Holland, 32 inches wide by 3 yards long, on which patterns of garments, suitable for children attending public elementary schools, are drawn so arranged as to show the greatest economy of materials."

NOTES.

(1) In all cases the specimens, garments, and drawings shown to the Inspector must be done without assistance and presented as they left the worker's hands. All garments must have been cut out by the makers.

(2) No embroidery is to be used. The garments should be of plain simple patterns, showing intelligence and good workmanship, but without elaborate detail.

The author would like strongly to urge the desirability of extending the teaching of the needlework to the *boys* in an Infant School. Many teachers have at first a prejudice against this extension, but find from experience that needlework can be done as well by them as by the girls;

and that it fosters general habits of neatness and cleanliness. It cannot fail, moreover, to increase general manipulative skill to come in aid of drawing and writing. Thus at a later age it may prevent that tactile inaptitude of the male sex, with whom so often "their fingers are all thumbs."

The writer is glad to find that several of H.M.'s Inspectors support his opinion that needlework can be profitably taught to boys in an Infant School.

"I always recommend that the infant boys should be taught to sew to the same extent as the girls."—

MR. FISHER.

The qualities, moreover, referred to in the subjoined extract are as useful to boys as to girls.

"When properly taught, needlework develops a child's moral and intellectual qualities in a very marked degree. It trains her in habits of observation, precision, patience, neatness, and order; in forethought, contrivance, economy; in the power of ready adaptation, and in general practical ability. These are qualities which tend at once to sharpen the wit and to strengthen the character."—MR. FUSSELL.

APPENDIX I.—NEEDLEWORK. INSTRUCTIONS TO H.M.'s INSPECTORS.

"Coloured cottons are recommended throughout. The object of giving two colours is to test the children's knowledge of 'joining'; this must be attended to in all cases.

"Suitable needles, cotton, thimbles, and scissors, if not given out beforehand, should be in readiness for distribution with the other materials, so that time may not be lost at the examination. Each girl should fasten securely together the different specimens if the exercise include more than one.

“It is of great importance that teachers, of all grades, should give evidence of their power of teaching needlework by demonstration, and by simultaneous method. You should, therefore, whenever practicable, call upon one or more of the Pupil Teachers and assistant teachers in each school, and especially the certificated assistants, to give an oral lesson in your presence.

“In infants’ classes the children, including those who are too young to work exercises, should be prepared to go through the movements of needle position, and knitting pin drill, in your presence.”

INSTRUCTIONS TO H.M.’S INSPECTORS AS TO EXAMINATION IN
NEEDLEWORK (SCHEDULE III.).

[Circular No. 215.]

“Education Department, 13th March, 1883.

“(1) At least forty-five minutes should be given to this examination.

“(2) A table of exercises, to be worked in this time, is annexed. The material required for each is shown. *The exercises, if completed so far as to furnish a proper test, will satisfy the requirements of the examination.*

“(3) It is desirable that, as a rule, and when the numbers in the Standards are sufficiently large, the whole of the exercises should be given. You should, therefore, divide the scholars in each Standard examined into as many groups (A, B, C, etc.) as there are exercises to be performed, and assign one exercise to the children of each group. Thus, for example, Standard IV. would be divided into five groups, and each of the five exercises would be worked in one of the groups.

“(4) Suitable needles, cotton, thimbles, and scissors, if

not given out beforehand, should be in readiness for distribution with the other materials, so that time may not be lost at the examination. Each girl should fasten securely together the different specimens if the exercise include more than one.

"(5) If the specimens are taken away for examination, it is desirable that at the close of the time allotted each child's work should be folded separately, the exercises in each group tied together, and the whole made up in Standards and fastened up, with the name of the school outside.

"(6) Coloured cottons are recommended throughout. The object of giving two colours is to test the children's knowledge of 'joinings'; this must be attended to in all cases.

"(7) Great attention should be paid to evidence of carefulness in teaching 'joinings' and 'fastenings' on and off, and to general neatness of finish.

"(8) In cutting out more credit should be given to correct proportions and useful intelligent work than to elaborate or trimmed paper models. This applies more particularly to the cutting out that may be shown as part of the work of the year.

"(9) It is of great importance that teachers of all grades should give evidence of their power of teaching needlework by demonstration and by the simultaneous method; you should, therefore, whenever practicable, call upon one or more of the Pupil Teachers and Assistant Teachers in each school, and especially the certificated assistants, to give an oral lesson in your presence.

"(10) In infants' classes children, including those who are too young to work exercises, should be prepared to go through the movements of needle, position, and knitting pin drill in your presence."

SYLLABUS OF EXERCISES FOR PUPIL TEACHERS ON THE DAY OF ANNUAL EXAMINATION.

FIRST YEAR.	SECOND YEAR.	THIRD YEAR.	FOURTH YEAR.
<p>FIRST EXERCISE. Join two pieces of calico together by seam and fell. Gather, stroke, and set in one joined end into a band. Hem the bottom, sew on a tape string.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE. Cast on 39 loops, and with two pins knit a piece as if for the calf of a stocking, showing three decreases, and cast off.</p>	<p>FIRST EXERCISE. Make a band with calico, on it work a button-hole, set on a button, and hem, whip, and set on a frill.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE. Fold down a hem on calico, on it work a button-hole with different ends, and run at least two tucks, and mark one letter chosen by the inspector.</p> <p>THIRD EXERCISE. Cast on 40 loops, knit and purl 4 and 4 for 4 rows, then alternate the squares to form a chequer three times, and cast off.</p>	<p>FIRST EXERCISE. Put in a patch in print about 3 inches square. Draw a letter, chosen by the inspector, in pencil on the patch, and work it out in stitching.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE. Set in a triangular patch in flannel about 3 inches each way, on it darn 10 rows as for a thin place.</p> <p>THIRD EXERCISE. Cast on 31 loops, knit a thickened heel, turn it "Dutch" shape, and cast off.</p>	<p>FIRST EXERCISE. Join two pieces of calico half their length, and insert a gusset, as for the body of a shirt, and stitch it across. Also work at least two inches of coral stitch, and mark one figure chosen by the inspector.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE. On a stitched band work a button-hole as for the left side of a shirt front, and another as for the back of an infant's robe. Sew on a tape-string and a button.</p> <p>THIRD EXERCISE. Set in a calico patch about 3 inches square, and mark one letter and one figure chosen by the inspector.</p> <p>FOURTH EXERCISE. Cast on 40 loops, and with 4 pins make the toe of a sock.</p>

<p>FIRST EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of calico, 3½ × 3½ inches. 2 pieces of calico, 7 × 8½ inches. 1 piece of tape, 2½ inches long. 6 yards of sewing cotton. 2 sewing needles.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE.</p> <p>2 knitting pins. 10 rounds of a skein of wool or cotton.</p>	<p>FIRST EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of calico, 7 × 3½ inches. 1 piece of mull, 1 × 6 inches. 1 linen unpierced button. 6 yards sewing cotton. 2 sewing needles.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of calico, 7 × 7 inches. 2 sewing needles. 6 yards sewing cotton. 1 yard marking cotton.</p> <p>THIRD EXERCISE.</p> <p>2 knitting pins. 10 rounds of a skein of wool or cotton.</p>	<p>FIRST EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of print, 9 × 9 inches. 6 yards of sewing cotton. 2 sewing needles.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of flannel, 9 × 9 inches. 2 sewing needles. 6 yards sewing cotton. 2 yards darning cotton. 1 darning needle. 1 yard marking or common coloured cotton.</p> <p>THIRD EXERCISE.</p> <p>2 knitting pins. 10 rounds of a skein of wool or cotton.</p>	<p>FIRST EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of calico, 3½ × 3½ inches. 2 pieces of calico, 7 × 8½ inches. 6 yards sewing cotton. 2 sewing needles.</p> <p>SECOND EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of calico, 7 × 3½ inches. 1 linen unpierced button. 6 yards sewing cotton. 2 sewing needles.</p> <p>THIRD EXERCISE.</p> <p>1 piece of calico, 7 × 7 inches. 2 sewing needles. 6 yards sewing cotton. 1 yard marking cotton.</p> <p>FOURTH EXERCISE.</p> <p>4 knitting pins. 20 rounds of a skein of wool or cotton.</p>
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N.B.—It is optional to the Inspector to choose which of the above exercises shall be done in his presence. Fine needles (Betweens), with fine cotton, No. 16 knitting pins, and No. 10 knitting cotton or “fingering” yarn, are recommended throughout. The sizes of the pieces are given to show the amount necessary. Larger pieces can be used if desired.

[*The following hints and instructions have been drawn up by a Head Teacher of an Infants' School, in which needlework is a speciality.*]

(N.B.—The parts marked with an asterisk * are points not noticed in any other book.)

The most important point in teaching the requirements of Schedule III. to Infants is the drill, including threading, position, and pin drill. It is impossible to over-estimate the value of this to classes.

It exercises those joints and muscles which come into play in the execution of each stitch, and gives them an elasticity and correctness of action, which can never be otherwise attained.

It is a known fact that children who have used this drill manipulate slates, books, etc., with much more ease than without it. Clumsiness, dropping slates, etc., especially with boys, entirely disappear, showing that it not only attains its object for needlework, but gives the hand a general power of manipulation.

Children 3 and 4 years old.

THREADING DRILL.

Requirements.—Threaders, cotton, and paper.

Arrange the children in rows on the gallery, so that the teacher can *command a full view of the hands of each child.

When at a given signal the attention of the class has been gained, the teacher will give a smart right and left hand exercise.

Distributing needles and cotton.

Needle hand.—*Teacher holds up her left hand, pressing thumb and first finger together; children imitating her with the right hand. The needles (Venables' Threaders, 4½d. per 100) must then be distributed.

Cotton hand.—*This with right hand is treated in a similar way to preceding. The cotton should be about $\frac{1}{4}$ yard in length (linen thread recommended).

Hands down.

(1) *Needle up.*—Each child raises the needle in a line with the eye.

(2) *Cotton up.*—Children hold cotton up near the end, as shown by the teacher.

(3) *Hands together.*—Point the cotton towards the needle eye.

(4) *Put the cotton through.*

(5) *Hold the cotton up.*—*Children hold cotton overhead in form of a swing, needle suspended in centre. (This is a pleasing exercise to the children.)

(6) *Take the needle off.*—Lower the left hand, letting the needle slide down the cotton into it. *Hands down.*

Collecting needles and cotton.—Use *same drill as in distributing, the teacher placing the ends of the cotton together and tying the whole in a single knot. (This being done carefully after each *lesson, threepennyworth of thread will last a class of 50 children twelve months.)

NOTE.—*Quarter of an hour, including distributing and collecting, is quite long enough for this lesson.

*Another quarter of an hour may be given to the folding of paper to form a hem. This has been found a very useful and interesting exercise, both in steadying the hand and training the eye, as well as supplying varied occupations. The leaves of old books can be utilized for this purpose, the printing being the guide for laying the hem straight. This exercise, if carried through all the stages of the Infant School, will not only lighten the work of Standard I. in fixing, but will enable the upper division of Sixes to fix with comparative ease.

*It is well for the teacher in the case of Threes and Fours to use the opposite hand to the children, as they cannot understand the relative positions of themselves and of the teacher.

Children 5 years old. (Also advanced Fours.)

POSITION DRILL.

Requirements.—Calico, needles, and thimbles. Strip 3 in. \times 2 in. fixed for hemming.

NOTE.—Divide $\frac{1}{2}$ yard of calico into 6 strips across the material, and as the general width of calico is 32 inches, each of these will give 16 pieces. This provides for 96 children. *Distribute.*

* *Work ready.*—Place the work over the first finger of left hand.

(1) *Needles up.*—Needles held between finger and thumb a little way from point.

(2) *Thimble.*—Each child must bend the second finger till the thimble rests on the needle eye.

(3) *Make a stitch.*—Push the point of the needle through the calico just below the fold of the hem, and bring it out the same distance above the hem, so that the needle may POINT directly over the middle of the thumb-nail. *NOTE.—It is well to examine VERY CAREFULLY the position of the needle at this point, as the shape of the stitch depends upon it.

(4) *Show work.*—Place the thumbs together on the upper side of the work, and turn it over in order to see if the needle shines on the other side. (The object of this is to see that each stitch is taken through the work.)

Ready.—Place work as before.

(5) *Push the needle through.*—Press the thimble against the eye of the needle, the thumb of the right hand resting on the work and pushing downwards.

(6) *Pull the needle out.*—Take hold of needle with thumb and first finger of the right hand, and draw it out over the right shoulder.

NOTE.—* *The upper division of Fives, having had this drill the previous year as Fours, are quite ready for hemming.*

KNITTING-PIN DRILL.

Each child to be furnished with two wooden pins.

Right and Left Hand Exercise.

- (1) Pins to be raised in both hands, taking hold near the points.
- (2) Left down.
- (3) Right down. (Repeat.)

Position of Fingers.—Left Hand.

- (1) Raise the left-hand pin, resting it between the third finger and palm of hand.
- (2) Bring the other three fingers down on the pin. (Repeat.)

Right Hand.

- (1) Raise the right-hand pin up near the point between the thumb and second finger.
- (2) First finger down on pin.
- (3) Close third and fourth fingers on pin.

Finger Movement for Right Hand only.

- (1) Lift up and down slowly first finger.
- (2) Lift third and fourth fingers up and down slowly.
- (3) Lift first, third, and fourth fingers up and down very slowly. (Repeat.)

Wrist Exercise.

- (1) *Backs*.—Backs of hands to be shown.
 - (2) *Fronts*.—Fronts of hands to be shown.
- (Pin-knobs raised off desk each time of turning.)

(3) *Up*.—Pins to be turned knobs up, backs of hands towards each other.

(4) *Down*.—To be turned knobs down, fronts of hands to each other.

(5) *Together*.—Bring hands together, pin-knobs resting on desk.

(6) *Out*.—Move hands apart.

KNITTING DRILL.

(1) *In*.—Bring both hands together, pins held as above, the right pin point resting under the left pin point.

(2) *Round*.—Rest the right thumb on the left thumb, and raise the first finger round the point of pin.

(3) *Catch*.—Draw the right-hand pin towards the body, rubbing it against the under side of left-hand pin.

(4) *Off*.—Then slide the right-hand pin off the point of left-hand pin.

KNITTING.

When the Pin Drill has been thoroughly mastered, not much difficulty will be felt in teaching children to *knit*.

Furnish each child with two pins, knitting previously cast on, consisting of 12 loops and 4 rows. The teacher, standing in front of her class, will take up her pins, placing both hands over them in position for doing "*In*," as explained in Knitting-Pin Drill, the children imitating.

She will next glide her right hand pin into the first loop, crossing the other pin underneath and forming the letter V. The teacher will now lay the cotton along the palm of her right hand, children following; then close the two middle fingers over it, requiring that great attention be given to the next two movements, which are—(1) Slip the first finger under the cotton, which must rest over the

nail; (2) Bring the cotton out over the little finger. . If this is not done the cotton slips through the hand without any tension, and the knitting is loose. When the pins have again been taken up in position for knitting, teacher will proceed thus :—Put the thumb of the right hand on the nail of the left-hand thumb, and throw the cotton round the point of the right-hand pin from back to front. This done, rest the first finger on the pin again, and gently draw the right-hand pin towards the body, rubbing it against the underside of left-hand pin, and catching the cotton through in the form of a loop; then draw the loop off the left pin. This last step must be done very slowly, else more loops will be drawn off than the one required.

The articles that can be made with this stitch are:—Strips for *dish-cloths*, **dusters*, *squares for cushions*, *cradle quilts*, *cuffs*, *scarfs*, **bluebags*, etc.

Children 6 years old.

HEMMING.

The Hemming Drill for this stage is a repetition of the Position Drill, with the addition of cotton, which should not be given too long.

Requirements.—Needles, cotton, thimbles, strips of calico, 2 inches by 18, with a hem (width, 8 threads) fixed on each side. When the children have received the proper materials (**which ought to be distributed in 5 minutes*), the teacher will say, "*Show work.*"

Then she will direct them to place the hem over the first finger of left hand, *just covering the nail*, and to hold it in position with the thumb and second finger. She will then go through each step in the Position Drill, paying particular attention to the stitch, its *shape*, *size*, and *regularity*. IMPORTANT.—In order to attain these, the

needle must point over the middle of thumb nail, each stitch must be taken clearly through, and a little in front of the one previously made.

**It is not well to keep children too long at strips, as they soon become uninteresting, and as many garments, e.g. pinafores, aprons, handkerchiefs, tea-cloths, may be completed by hemming alone, the greater number might be supplied with them after finishing one or two strips.*

[Counter-hemming is the method of joining two pieces of material together by felling. As this is merely the hemming of one piece of material on to another, no new stitch is learned.

(*NOTE.—Counter-hemming, practically speaking, may be superseded by a seam and fell, for as soon as a child can seam and fell, the necessity for using it immediately disappears.

A child should be taught the best way of doing things from the beginning.]

All the hemming on the strips must be done with coloured cotton, this will enable both teacher and child to detect at a glance any defect in the shape or position of the stitch.

The colours should be graded as follows:—Begin with *Black* cotton, and as progress is made, pass from *Black* to *Red*, and then to *Blue*.

This method, in the hands of a skilful teacher, will act as a strong stimulus to work.

Each child will be made to feel that it is quite an honour to pass into a new colour, and will strive for it *just in proportion as the teacher has been successful in fostering that feeling.*

FIXING.

Materials.—Calico, 2 inches by 18, needles, tacking-cotton, thimbles. When these have been distributed, the

children must be taught to take up the strips and fold in the raw edge about 4 threads deep, beginning at the right-hand corner. This done, they will fold it in a second time in a similar manner, *about double the width of former*, and proceed to tack, beginning and ending with a back stitch.

In this, as in all the other exercises, the teacher must execute each step in front of her class, before requiring the children to do it.

LIST OF DIFFICULTIES AND FAULTS.

(1) ** Too long lessons in Threading Drill cause fatigue ; needles drop, and the whole object of the drill is lost.*

(2) *Children find great difficulty in imitating teacher if she does not use opposite hand.*

(3) *To bend the thimble finger to its position on the needle's eye is a task which can only be accomplished by much practice.*

(4) Split hemming. This is caused by ** the faulty teaching of No. 4 in Position Drill.*

(5) Puckering—caused by drawing the cotton too tight.

(6) Upright stitches—caused by neglecting the proper direction of needle in No. 3 Position Drill.

(7) Stitches too close together. Occasioned by children not being taught to take a step forward with every stitch.

(8) Too long cotton. Gets dirty, knotted, and cannot be ** drawn through at one swing.*

(9) ** A whole afternoon should never be devoted to needle-work.* It is cruel to keep a little child two hours at one thing.

(10) Dirty cotton. Consequent on the children drawing the cotton out through the palm of the hand instead of over the third and fourth fingers, a movement which keeps the hand open and cool.

LIST OF QUESTIONS GIVEN BY A LONDON EXAMINER.

Children 8 and 4 years old.

Show me your left hand. Right hand. What have you in your left hand? Which is the eye? What is it for? What is the needle made of? *Cotton*.—How many ends has it got? Which way does it go through the eye of the needle?—Right to left. *Paper-folding*.—How many sides has the paper, ends, corners? At which end do you begin to fold? How do you manage to keep the folds straight?—Lines of print. How many times do you turn it down? What have you made now? Show a hem on something you are wearing.

Children 5 and 6 years old.

Show the thimble finger. What is use of a thimble? What would happen to finger without it? Why are those little hollows all over it? What must you take on needle to make a stitch? What has teacher done to strip before you had it? What else?—Tacked it. Why are articles hemmed? *Spell Hemming, Print, Calico, etc.*—Why is this called print? What is it made of? What kind of garments is print used for? Where must the needle point in making a stitch? What shape ought the stitch to be?—Slanting. How much of the finger ought to be covered with the material in hemming? In what direction must the needle be drawn out?

The following Memorandum on Needlework by the Rev. Capel Sewell, one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, may be found useful as an alternative scheme:—

“INFANT SCHOOLS.—Every class has Instruction, the whole school probably falling into three (1, 2, 3) groups.

“(1) The Babies—so-called Kinder-garten exercises with thimble, needle, thread, and paper slips. The object

of these exercises is to make children quick and deft in handling the implements of sewing, and accustomed to the feel of them, especially the thimble. They are likewise of service—like the common manual exercises—for imparting habits of quiet attention, if used with speed and precision. For this purpose are necessary thimbles in abundance in a box; needles, short and thick, in a cushion; thread, in hanks; paper, in slips, for folding hems. The exercises come frequently, not on sewing afternoons only. All ingenuity is used to save time and make the children attentive and nimble fingered. This is understood to be what the Code calls position drill.

“(2) *Lower Division* (Schedule III.).—Children who have acquired this dexterity begin to hem with black cotton—the hems fixed and work begun for them;—material, coarse calico, of which the threads can be seen, or possibly canvas. With proficiency comes the use of red cotton; with greater proficiency, blue; each colour being dropped as the next is reached. “Going on,” says the Code, from black to red and blue. Children of sufficient aptitude pass into the upper division.

“(3) *Upper Division* (Schedule III.).—These work stitches determined by the code, with white cotton on calico; fix hems at least, and continue the *Kinder-garten* exercises sufficiently to keep them in quick practice.

“Arrangements as minute as these are found to be worth their labour. With due care not to waste time, after a little practice, they take no longer than less elaborate methods. They lay the foundation of manual dexterity and good sewing habits, which girls too often leave school without acquiring. In group (1) at least boys and girls may well be taught together, otherwise the boys at sewing time are doing nothing, and miss a useful manual exercise.”

The following is an alternative scheme of drill:—

INFANT SCHOOL SIMULTANEOUS NEEDLEWORK DRILL.

A. Needle Threading.

[Teacher to stand in front of class and to use her left hand instead of right, and *vice versâ*, and to correct the opposite position in which she stands to the class].

- (1) Hold the needle up (in left hand, children).
- (2) Hold the cotton up (in right hand).
- (3) Bring the needle and cotton close together.
- (4) Put the cotton through the eye.
- (5) Pull the cotton through the eye.
- (6) Swing the needle on the cotton.

B. Thimble Drill.

[Children must first be taught to distinguish the “thimble-finger” by its height above the others.]

- (1) Hold the thimble-finger up.
- (2) Take up thimble (in left hand between thumb and first finger).
- (3) Put thimble on thimble-finger.

C. Hemming Drill.

[Children should first be taught how to hold their work over the first finger of left hand by means of strips of paper.]

- (1) Make a little stitch.
- (2) See if it shines through (children turn work over to see if needle be visible).
- (3) Turn work back again.
- (4) Push needle through with thimble.
- (5) Draw it out over shoulder.

*D. Knitting Drill.**For German Knitting.*

- (1) Needle through.
- (2) Catch cotton.
- (3) Off.

English.

- (1) Needle through.
- (2) Cotton round.
- (3) Catch.
- (4) Off.

CHAPTER XI.

MANAGEMENT, ORGANIZATION, AND DISCIPLINE.

THE requirements from Infant Schools to earn the Merit Grant are more precisely laid down in the Code than is the case in schools for older children. But no reference, as in the former case, is made in the code to (1) the *Organization* and (2) *Discipline*. These, nevertheless, are factors that must and ought to be present in the mind of an Inspector, and a few remarks will be made on this part of school life, so far as the *special* organization and discipline of an Infant School are concerned. (See Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors.)

I. ORGANIZATION.

This is manifestly different from that of an upper department where Standards have to be adhered to. In an Infant School there is the choice of classifying according to age, and according to attainments. The former, if alone considered, is a vicious basis; but some attention to age is required, even when attainment is the fundamental notion of subdivision. The largest schools in this matter, as elsewhere, possess great advantages over the smaller, in good plans of possible organization, as more subdivision can be effected. A good arrangement, where the numbers allow of it, is the following:—

I. (Top) Class, 6-7 years old: the most advanced, especially in Reading.

II. Class, 6-7 years old: less advanced.

III. Class, 6-7 years old: "Wastrels," recently admitted with little previous infant schooling.

Classes I. and II. have had one or two years' previous Infant School training.

This organization suits a school of from 200-300 children. If the numbers are larger, a class or classes can be interpolated between II. and III.; if smaller, II. can be broken up between I. and III. All these go into upper departments at the end of the school year, and hence they are made into one section. Beneath this section comes a lower consisting of—

IV. Class, 5-6, the more advanced.

V. „ 5-6, „ less „

with VI. a class of 5-6 "wastrels." Similar remarks apply here to those made in the upper section.

The lowest section comprises the 4-5 years old children, and, when taken in from 3-4, the "Babies" proper.

TIME TABLES.—The construction of time tables is a part of organization. The guiding principle in drawing up these should be to give frequent changes, and the most diverse occupations, to the youngest and weakest children, not letting any lesson exceed in length a quarter of an hour, and gradually adding to the length and reducing the playing occupations as we proceed higher and higher in the school. Ample provision should be made in the Time Table for the play-ground. It is cruel to retain children with muscles cramped in desks and on galleries from 9 to 12, and from 2 to 4.30. This is sometimes done by weak teachers under the plea of "saving time," but always really to save energy. As a consequence the children are continually passing by ones and twos from the school to the offices. Whenever the weather permits, the school should

be "turned inside out" for a quarter of an hour at least, morning and afternoon; the windows and doors (in summer) being left wide open for the foul air to be swept out. In bad weather every child should be exercised by shifting the classes from desks to galleries, and *vice versa*.

The points to be considered in drawing up Time Tables may be thus summarized:—

(1) Draw up a list of subjects to be taught; apportion the due time necessary for each according to importance, giving Reading and Arithmetic the largest share.

(2) Apportion the time of each lesson according to

(a) The difficulty of the subject—the most difficult having the least time at each lesson, because of mental strain.

(b) According to the age and capacities of the children, the youngest and weakest having the shortest lessons.

(3) Let the *succession* of lessons be from difficult to simple, and such as to afford the greatest *variety*.

(4) Arrange that "noisy" lessons be not given simultaneously in contiguous classes.

(5) Leave no class to do work without a teacher.

(6) Arrange that the Head Teacher may periodically superintend, teach, and examine the whole school.

(7) Let the most competent teachers take the most difficult work, even if teachers have to be shifted to some extent from class to class (Professorial plan.)

(8) Let the class rooms be used for the noisy lessons as much as possible.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION is necessary because of the number of pupils and of subjects to be taught, and has reference to—

(1) *The Classification of scholars* according to attainments, especially in Reading, or in Reading and Arithmetic taken together.

(2) *Arrangement into classes*, depending on the number of children, and of teachers, and according to the difference of attainments. The classes should be most broken up for Reading, and least so for Gallery, Object, and Scripture Lessons, and Writing.

(3) *Distribution of teaching staff*. The best teachers are required for the most difficult work; and this difficulty increases the lower down we go in the school.

(4) *Distribution of work*. This is secured by time tables, which are "Diagrams of the organization." These should have reference to the following conditions—

- (a) Difficulty and importance of the subjects of instruction.
- (b) Power of sustained attention on the part of the class.
- (c) Alternation of difficult and easy subjects.
- (d) Apportionment of most difficult subjects to time of day when children are freshest in attention.
- (e) Proper changes from desks to floor space.

II. DISCIPLINE.

This largely depends on the organization; if the school is not properly subdivided, and the staff not judiciously distributed, the discipline infallibly suffers; but the latter may be the case where there is judicious organization, and for a variety of reasons. One of the special failures connected with discipline in an Infant School is the weak untrained, or strong ill-trained, will of the child, and the just objection to corporal punishment in Infant Schools. Infinite tact,—and tact of which a woman alone is capable,—is clearly required under these circumstances: and it is not every woman even that possesses this "excellent gift" that approaches closely to "charity" in the deepest sense of the word. It is monstrous in parent or teacher to bruise

the tender flesh of a child under any provocation; but on the other hand, children, from ill-training at home, are often more like angels of darkness than of light. Womanly instinct is the best guide, with Patience! Patience! Patience! as a handmaid.

It may be usefully remembered that when a child has once set out on the war-path, he will often return to cry aloud and lift up his voice, long after he has forgotten what he is crying for or about; and that a little dexterity will distract the child's attention from his imaginary woes, and fix it on the work of the class.

On the other hand, the teacher's will should be quietly, but firmly, impressed on the child's recognition; or *we victis!* The child is often a tyrant to the mother, but it should never be allowed to be so to the teacher. The latter should avoid threats, fussiness, and bluster, and in patience possess her strength; and the "sympathy of numbers" in an orderly Infant School will soon prevail. The most rebellious natures are often thus won by skilful teachers, and the exhibition of obstinacy conquered is made a golden rivet to tighten the bonds of discipline throughout the school. As the Junior Teachers do not generally possess so large a stock of this fund of good sense and good feeling, the Head Teacher should be on the alert against their "pulling the children about," and firmly check all pettishness on their part.

The two main instruments for maintaining discipline in an Infant School (as elsewhere) are—

(1) *Rewards.*

(2) *Punishments.*

That is, through hope and love on the one hand, and fear on the other.

Rewards.—These in an Infant School should be more immediate and to hand, than in any other school department, as children cannot look very far forward into the

future. As infants often do not know the value or use of tangible presents, such as books, etc., the rewards should rather consist of the teacher's smiles, approbation, kindly pat of the head, and promotion to the top of the class, with an occasional cheap but pretty picture card, or illustrated leaflet suitable to infants. In distributing praise the teacher should have regard to *effort*, not *ability*. The former is within the control of the child; the latter is God's gift to grant or withhold.

The following summarize the most ready means of rewarding good conduct: (1) Praise; (2) Promotion to offices of trust; (3) Change of places in the class; (4) Picture cards, illustrated leaflets, etc.

The rewards must be—

(1) Open to all, and within reach of all.

(2) Given for real effort (not mere natural ability).

Punishments.—These also should be immediate, and in an Infant School non-corporal. By the latter term the author wishes to exclude such injudicious forms of torture as the child's holding up a slate, standing on one leg, etc., until the muscles become cramped and stiff. On the other hand, even in an Infant School, as in God's government everywhere, punishment is occasionally necessary, and therefore justifiable. Its aims should be twofold:—

(1) To correct, and in so doing to reform, the individual culprit.

(2) To serve as a deterrent and warning to others.

A remark made in the Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors on the subject may be of use. "You will not fail in your intercourse with teachers and managers to impress upon them that the more thoroughly a teacher is qualified for her position, by skill, character, and personal influence, the less necessary it is for her to resort to corporal chastisement at all. When, however, the necessity arises, the punishment should be administered by the Head Teacher,

and an entry of the fact should, in their Lordships' opinion, be made in the log-book."

In awarding punishment the teacher should—

(1) Be just, and so palpably just, that even the offender recognizes the justice.

(2) In proportion to the seriousness of the offence, but mitigated according to the strength of the temptation, and the weakness of the offender due to want of education, physical weakness, home surroundings, influence of others, etc.

(3) Not capricious, severe in ill-humour and lax in good temper.

(4) Not trifling, bringing no real pain of mind to the corrected.

(5) *Economical*. The least punishment that is effective should suffice; the weapon is always dangerous to use.

(6) *Graduated*, so that if one infliction do not suffice for its end, it may be backed up by a greater till the child's will is overcome.

With infants tasks should not be imposed as punishment; the ordinary work is sufficient for young children, and work should be associated with pleasure, not with pain.

The Moral Feelings.—While the bodily and purely mental faculties of the child are educated, the teacher must not neglect the Moral Feelings. Perhaps it would be best to sum up in brief the aims to be kept in view.

(1) The belief in a Supreme Being, the Creator of ourselves and all around us; the giver of law, the rewarder and punisher of good and evil. "Our duty towards God."

(2) The necessity and fairness of doing towards others what we would that they should do towards us, and the negative side of the same principle. "Our duty towards our neighbour."

(3) Keeping our bodies, thoughts, and language pure

and clean. Patience, Humility, Self-respect. "Our duty towards ourselves."

These three may be summed up as being Holy, Just, Sober.

To carry out these the teacher trains the body and the Intellect, Emotions, and Will of the child; and in all these cases infancy is the most plastic period to do so. It need hardly be said that the teacher's own living example will be the most efficient monitor; she should therefore have these words engraved on her own heart and practice: Love, Reverence, Patience, Obedience, Kindness, Truthfulness, Honesty, Punctuality, Cleanliness, Respect.

The discipline of a school refers, moreover, to obedience, the order, the quiet distribution and collection of material, the setting up of apparatus, "having a place for everything and everything in its place," (clean dusters and chalk ready to hand, pencils pointed, slates ruled, etc.), economizing of time in changing lessons, the quiet and quickness of taking registers, the fixity of attention, the absence of distraction of teachers and taught when strangers are present, quiet and ready obedience in position drill, posture in desks, or galleries, and in floor-lessons (with absence of fidgetting and lounging), the proper holding of book, slate, and pencil, etc.

Moreover, "the managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the inspector that all reasonable care is taken in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act." (Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors, Footnote.)

Discipline viewed subjectively is the active instrument by which good order, etc., is maintained. Viewed objec-

tively it is the result of this special work of the teacher. Thus we say—(1) “The teacher’s discipline keeps the school machine noiselessly at work.” (2) “The master could not maintain discipline.”

There is a third way in which the word is used by teachers, as, “Please take the discipline of the school.”

Objects aimed at in discipline:—1. Order; 2. Quietness; 3. Attention; 4. Obedience; 5. Industry; 6. Moral discipline, good habits. Before taking up each of these, we may point out that discipline depends on (a) the teacher; (b) her surroundings. These latter are mainly beyond the teacher’s control, and depend on the size and shape of the school; the presence or want of class-room; government regulations fixing maximum width of schools; proximity of noisy streets; over-crowding beyond teacher’s power of regulation; proper apparatus; character of the population, etc.

Means to secure good discipline.—(1) *Good organization*, especially in the matter of a distribution of staff. Of course the most skilful teachers will be put to the most difficult work, *i.e.* the lower sections. This distribution also should allow of teachers being shifted from class to class in the different years of their apprenticeship, and according to the subjects they can best teach.

This professorial method of distributing the staff is the basis of organization in secondary schools, where there are the Mathematical, Classical, Modern, English, Music, Drawing, and Writing masters.

(2) *Arrangement of Time Table*.—This should secure as the first essential silent lessons, side by side with lessons necessitating noise, *i.e.* isolation as far as it can be got in a single room. The next essential is gymnastics, drill, and change from desks to floor. The gymnastics and drill strengthen the command of the teacher, and perfect the will of the child; by drill we get necessary movements

made in the most uniform manner, in the quickest time, with the least noise. The change should be given to relieve the muscular constraint of the children.

ORDER.—The first requisite of good management in *all* schools is order. Under this term we include obedience, application to work, quietness, proper attitudes and position of the individual children, whether standing toeing a chalk line, or, what is better, standing to a line marked out on the floor by brass-headed nails, set at wide intervals, or seated in desks. If at desks the children should be faces full front for collective lessons except in Writing, when they should all sit with the faces turned to the quarter right turn, all pencils pointed from the body; the slates with top edges parallel to the length of the desks (not at all angles therewith), and all to the right of the sitters. The term Order also refers to the proper way of holding the reading books, when drafts for reading are taken on the floor. These should all be so held that the movements of the lips and mouth of the children reading can be distinctly observed by the teacher, while the left arm is folded behind to leave free expansion of the chest, for clear and sonorous utterance. If the class is too young to hold the book with the right hand only, and to follow the words with the unaided eye, small pointers sold for the purpose, or, in lieu of these, the pencils of the children should be moved from word to word as read, to enable the children to “keep their places.”

The term also includes reference to “changes” from class to class—marching either with or without songs or tables set to music from desk, to floor, and *vice versâ*, time and tune being kept without acceleration, the spaces between any two children being equal on the march. The movements of getting into or out of the desks, when ranged inside should be methodical, simultaneous, and quiet, without loud words of command, and without plunging of

the teacher from the front of her class—her proper position of command—to rouse up stragglers. The eye and voice alone of the teacher should enforce the commands being executed, without the help of the hand, no touching or pulling about being ever made use of by the teacher. To prevent this, it is a good plan to keep the teacher in front of the class, behind a Pupil Teacher's desk, or even a chair with its back turned towards her.

There is one *special* reason in an Infant School why good order should be always maintained, viz. it is here that the first habits are formed which will be carried into the upper departments, and the minds and bodies of children are more supple and docile at this age than at any other. "As the twig is bent, so will the tree be inclined."

These good habits are obtained by Discipline which is the *means* by which these as *ends* are attained, while Drill is an instrument in the hands of Discipline. Thus many schools noted for excellent order use no drill, though this is the exception to the rule.

So also there are good *teachers* that are bad disciplinarians, but they are good private or individual teachers, not keepers of elementary or other public schools. Of late years many of the former have come into government schools to obtain a certificate; but while as a rule their own knowledge is larger, and their personal influence more refining than those of the ordinary elementary school Pupil Teacher or ex-Pupil Teacher, yet in the majority of instances they are much weaker in carrying out discipline. They may be better *teachers*, but they are often worse *school-keepers*.

The large numbers dealt with in the individual class, and in the school as a whole, make Discipline absolutely necessary, without which there can be neither profitable instruction nor education.

Moreover, good discipline is not only necessary to both teacher and taught, but it is also a great comfort and satisfaction to both. It may cost something to both at first, but it repays for its outlay at a compound interest afterwards. Whatever it may cost, therefore, to the teacher, either to begin or maintain, insist with yourself and with the class that you will have it as the shortest road to the end, even if the most difficult at first. And remember that while you are one, and apt to tire, the class is manifold, fuller of spontaneity than yourself, because younger, and there is always some one or more looking out for a loophole of escape from constraint, so that the maintenance of discipline, even when once attained, is a task requiring all a wary teacher's ability. Old maids and bachelors may conceive of children as angels of light—types of guileless innocence,—but a quarter of a century's personal experience of them would teach such that they can be tyrants over parents and schoolfellows, apt at crafty devices, ever ready to take advantage of weakness, and in fact as prone to do evil as children of an older growth. The recognition of this fact to begin with, will save much heart-aching that will otherwise come with the assumption that children are as innocent as doves.

Discipline is necessary moreover in school, as this is merely the play-ground of life. In school the most permanent habits are to be formed at the most plastic period of the child's life. It is in vain to hope that the home in the majority of cases will be the place where good habits will be formed. The industrial demands on the parents are too excessive, and their own ignorance, idleness, or carelessness are often too great for this, if indeed they are not a fruitful example of bad habits. Therefore, what social and moral, as well as what intellectual education the children obtain, will be obtained mostly from the teacher.

In the maintenance of Discipline the teacher will aim at being—

(1) *Just*; treating all alike, without favouritism and without antipathy. It is easier to obey the first half of the rule, than it is to lay aside that natural feeling of antagonism to one who is always endeavouring to thwart the efforts of a teacher.

(2) The Discipline should be *regular*, that is, the teacher should not play fast and loose with the class or school, sometimes allowing rules to be broken with impunity, at other times becoming a martinet, and punishing lesser, with the severity due to graver, offences. Otherwise advantage will be taken of the uncertainty of government, the children hoping, in accordance with the sanguine temperament of youth, to escape for once more as they have done before.

(3) The Discipline should not be *repressive*. Children have a keen sense of justice, and while willing to submit to what they find from experience to be necessary to maintain order, they will naturally and justly resent harsh rules which are set up merely to assert the prerogative of the teacher. Under the latter system their obedience will be “eyeservice” merely, and a bad *esprit de corps* destructive of all comfort to themselves and to the teacher will ensue. At the same time the discipline should descend to what are called minor details of posture, position, bearing, etc., as it is chiefly through these that attention to larger matters can be best secured.

(4) The greatest provocative to disorder is want of work, not innate love of disobedience. Children must be doing something, and if something profitable be not found by the teacher, something provocative of disorder will be discovered by the children themselves.

If proper precautions in this respect be taken, the children of themselves will work continuously, quietly, and

cheerfully. Nor should the teacher *worry* the class in order to secure quietness. There must be some noise in real work, as there must be dirt in a workshop, but it should be noise of work—"clean dirt." While so many teachers by lack of discipline do not reap the full results of their work, there are others who are mere school-keepers, and not teachers. These spend all their energies in merely maintaining profitless quietness. Such a state of things is soon painfully evident, not only when an Examination tests the paucity of the results of such instruction, but even when the teacher is casually withdrawn from the class. Then the repressed spontaneity of the children breaks out in talking, etc., and the seemingly perfect order tumbles to pieces. Those rule best who seem not to rule; and these do not need to fall back on the *brutum fulmen* of threats, sneers, loud tone, or the reiteration of the word of command.

Sometimes in treatises on School Method and Management a sharp line of distinction is drawn between these two. The former we have already dealt with in earlier pages, the latter under the names of Organization and Discipline. But the subject of School Management is also of great importance to the teacher theoretically, in order to answer questions on it in the Certificate Examinations. At the disadvantage, therefore, of repeating our previous remarks, we append a few remarks on the most important portions of the subject, and such as are generally referred to in scholarship and certificate examinations, for the guidance of the teacher in paper work.

Remarks of H.M.'s Inspectors.—Discipline is best maintained by the observance of a regular and well understood routine in the arrangement of lessons, by the employment of physical obstacles to copying, by a vigilant eye, by absence of noise in teaching, by encouragements, and the cultivation of a love of

approval; in short, by the head and the heart, and not by the hand."—MR. PABEZ.

"Quiet teachers make quiet scholars. Loud calls to order, a want of vigilance which sees at a glance all that is going on, undue severity, etc., tend themselves to promote disorder. Attention should be paid to the manner in which children leave school. Singing as they leave is a good outlet for young voices so long silent. Children should not be allowed to rush with shouts from the school doors. They should march a short distance, and then fall out as soldiers after a parade. Manners also should receive more attention."—MR. BARRY.

"Discipline, by which I mean the power of concentrating the children's attention on the teacher at a given moment, cannot be valued too highly; without it the class will learn little."—MR. FREELAND.

1. *Order*.—By order in a class or school is meant—

(a) All the children sitting in the same position; if in desks, sitting in full front, or with left side to desk, faces directed the same way, legs and arms in same postures.

(b) Doing gymnastic exercises in the same time and with the same energy.

(c) Marching behind one another, with shoulders squared, head erect but not thrown back, eyes directed to their own level, neck not stiff, arms by their side, toes directed outwards. All motion should proceed from the hips, no digging heels in the floor, nor creeping cat-like on the toes; but walk on the ball of the foot, with distance between sufficient for a child to pass through, eyes on the middle of the back of the head of the child in front, with no rolling of the shoulders, and, of course, keeping step, and beginning with the left foot foremost.

(d) Order also refers to symmetrical distribution, and collection of materials and apparatus. Very often con-

fusion arises from sending children to fetch what the teacher herself should bring.

2. *Quietness*.—Some teachers can maintain order, but not quietness. The children talk though they are in good order, but pretend not to do so; there is a constant buzz of suppressed conversation, yet every child tries to look innocent.

But, generally, order and quietness go together. On the other hand, there are some teachers that can maintain quietness but only with idleness; the class must be doing nothing in order to be quiet; only while it stands "at attention" will it give attention.

3. *Attention*.—All attention must be voluntary, the act of the will, to gratify present pleasure, to secure future pleasure, or to avoid present or future pain. Rewards and punishment are the educators of the will. Each child is endued with a sense of *power* under which it enjoys the exercise of its faculties. Hence the youngest children have their attention fixed by appeals to their senses, especially to sight, hearing, and touch. As a child becomes older more remote incentives than *present* punishment or pain, can be made a *primum mobile*. A mighty instrument in awakening and fixing attention, is the arousing of the spirit of inquiry or wonder. Not only give all the attraction possible to enlist attention, but remove distraction. Do not bring in such a lot of pictures, diagrams, or illustrative objects, to be all shown at once, that the child's attention is fixed on them, not on you; these are to illustrate the lesson, the lessons are not to illustrate the objects.

Some subjects are in themselves dull, as Arithmetic in an Infant School. These require the greater quickness and life in the teacher. Some children who appear wilful are really weak in will; they are disobedient because they have not sufficient control over their will, motives do not

sway them as they ought to do. Such individuals should be acted on by stronger incentives than others, but brute force should not be used towards them.

By attention we mean the power of concentration of the mind upon a single object, *i.e.* the power of laying aside all the impressions of the senses but one. As the eye sees only one spot at a time, so the mind only attends to one impression at a time; the rest is memory.

The instruments for awakening and fixing attention are—
(i.) Wonder, surprise, curiosity; (ii.) Spontaneity, love of activity, sense of power; (iii.) Sympathy, love; (iv.) The feeling of usefulness; (v.) Emulation and love of praise, and sense of shame and reproof.

4. *Obedience*.—Obedience should be prompt and cheerful; a sullen, unready obedience is as offensive as flat disobedience. This is best secured by drill, including gymnastics. Drill secures obedience without thought or reflection on the part of the drilled. In securing obedience the following points should be attended to:—

(a) Let the rules of the school be *reasonable*, otherwise disobedience becomes almost justifiable; and be *discriminative* of circumstances, not rigid and mechanical.

(b) Let the rules be *definite*. It is an axiom in law that everybody knows the law; but it is cruel if it be so written as to be unknowable. Never allow the children to take advantage of your good humour: a weak teacher is at one time strict as a martinet, and lets anarchy prevail at another. Let your motto be "*Semper eadem*."

(c) Give time for obedience to be secured, but no more than is enough. If the orders be "one," "two," "three," "four," let "one" be done before "two" is begun, etc. Do not let the actions tumble over each other.

(d) Always assume that obedience will be paid; ignore the very idea of disobedience. Of course, threats should, therefore, never be uttered to tempt collective disobedience.

This utterance of threats is the sanguinary influence too often adopted in home education, and exists in some schools.

The teacher should not be *fussy* or *assertive*; the covert threat, "I mean to have quietness," etc., is generally an open confession of weakness, which the class soon recognizes and appreciates at its little value. Orders should be given once and not repeated; otherwise the class will acquire the habit of disobeying the first injunction and finally the last likewise. The manner should not be *dictatorial*; the ruder a child may be the more necessity there is for the teacher to offer an example of politeness in herself, forbearing rather than overbearing, but forbearing to conquer obstinacy.

(e) Let all the school-time be quietly occupied up to the full bent of the children either in work or play—"work while you work; play while you play." The human mind is like a millstone, that must grind a foreign substance or grind itself. In such lessons as Arithmetic and Writing, where one individual may finish work before another, give to such a child a special copy, a special sum, etc., but allow no idleness. Frequently an almost hopeless subject is redeemed by being converted into an office-bearer.

(f) Let the discipline descend to the smallest details; it is in apparent trifles that a good teacher fixes good habits, and by inattention to these that a weak teacher ruins the discipline in larger matters. In this respect the proverb is true, that if "you give an inch," the children "will take an ell."

(g) Let orders be given in a firm decided manner, but not too loudly. Remember a class is not a regiment, and that the schoolroom is not the open field, and that the school teacher is not a serjeant-major.

5. *Industry* means intense application to set tasks. If there is love conjoined with this it becomes diligence—

the work and the worker are identified. Two things are necessary to the highest success, viz. Genius and Industry; the first is rare, the second is within the reach of all.

A part of school work is to fix and prolong attention. This is sometimes called concentration of thought or abstraction. It means attending only to one thing at a time, and putting away all diversions.

6. *Tone*.—This is one of the most difficult words to explain. Tone is also one of the most difficult things to describe, but it is very easy to feel it in going into a school. In this respect it is like the influence of poetry and music. If the human body has a good muscular tone or tension about it, it is in a sound, healthy, vigorous condition, *consciously* and *unconsciously*, in sleep as much as when awake. If it has a low tone, that is, a low tension, it wants stringing up by a *tonic*. The moral tone of a school is like this; if sound it imparts vigour all over and right through the school, enforcing honest work (no copying), fixity of attention, modesty and courtesy, respect for others and self-respect, happiness and cheerfulness, truthfulness, and a sound public school opinion (without false honour). If the example of the teachers be not the whole, it is certainly the largest factor in the matter.

Good habits.—By good habits we mean close-fitting costumes, which have become a part of ourselves, from long use; not loose as if they did not belong to us, nor tight and constrained. The latest amended form of the Code takes up this question in 109 b.

"The Inspector will bear in mind, in reporting on the organization and discipline, the results of any visits without notice made in the course of the school year, and will not interfere with any method of organization adopted in a training college under inspection if it is satisfactorily carried out in the school. To meet the requirements respecting discipline, the managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the

Inspector that all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act."

Besides the *special* means of maintaining the discipline of an Infant School, there are general rules to be attended to, such as the following:—

(1) Let your own example illustrate your precepts; a slovenly, lounging, unpunctual, loud-speaking, hasty teacher cannot expect to secure a good moral tone to her class.

(2) Carefully avoid favouritism and prejudice. Do not be swayed by the attraction of a pretty face; and if a child is neglected or dirty, reflect that it is not the infant's fault. Overcome your repugnance in a spirit of large-hearted charity, and try to induce the parent into more cleanly habits.

(3) Cultivate a pleasant and refined tone of voice; the school is often the only place where children of the poor can be swayed by this potent instrument of good. A teacher's voice in an Infant School should ever be "soft and low, an excellent thing in woman." A clear, gentle voice reaches further towards both ear and heart, than a loud strident one, for in a school noise infallibly begets noise.

(4) Wherever possible, spare your voice, using signs instead, both to relieve the muscles of your own throat and chest, and to secure quietness; the "less a teacher speaks the more she will be heard."

(5) Refer all serious punishment to your Head Mistress, and let the class see that recourse to punishment is a pain to you, and not a vent to hasty feeling. In many cases it

is only an outward and visible sign of weakness on the part of the teacher.

(6) Take an interest in the children's games in the play-ground ; you will thus secure the affection of many an incipient rebel, and win him over to the side of order.

(7) Remember that the children's work begins at 9 and 2 o'clock ; but the teacher's *before* this time. All lessons, books, and apparatus should be ready before these hours.

(8) Always arrange your class so that the most backward and most troublesome children are nearest to you.

(9) Teach *all* the class, not the middle, or one row only ; especially have an eye to the back row, the corners of floor-classes, and the children at the ends of the desks.

(10) Let the class see as little of your back as possible. If writing on the blackboard, do so while still teaching.

(11) So correct and teach individual children that you may teach and correct the class ; but do not allow simultaneous answers except on the rarest occasions.

(12) Never let your children have time to become disorderly ; it is the "idle hands" for whom Satan still finds some mischief to do. "The mind cannot remain empty ; if you do not put into it that which is good, it will be sure to receive that which is bad."—BERKELEY.

(13) In educating infants we have to cultivate the powers of—

- (i.) The SENSES—Eye, Ear, Hands ; pointing out—
 - (a) The *likeness*
 - (b) The *differences* } of things.
- (ii.) The FEELINGS, especially truthfulness, honesty. kindness to others and to animals.
- (iii.) The WILL which governs action or expression. To do this a long time is required to enable the child habitually to fix attention, to check irresolution and impulse, to be obedient, and to have self-control of temper.

- (iv.) The INTELLECT.—This is the first and often the only part of a child which is thought of by some teachers who have mistaken their proper sphere. It deals with the reasoning powers, especially as exercised by Arithmetic; and the memory (as trained by Reading and Writing) of visual and auditory spectra of past exercises.

GOVERNMENT QUESTIONS.—ORGANIZATION.

1. Into how many classes was your school divided? And what classes did you chiefly teach? What were the subjects, and the order in which they were taken? Give an example of one week's work of your school. (Scholarship.)

2. Give a sketch of a lesson which you have heard given by the teacher of your school, and draw up a series of questions which you might have put to your class, to see whether they had attended to the lesson. (Ditto.)

3. How were faults of unpunctuality, sullenness, quarrelling, and falsehood punished in the school from which you come? Relate any instances of special difficulty in discipline which have occurred within your knowledge. (Ditto.)

4. Describe the organization of the school in which you were a Pupil Teacher. (Ditto.)

5. What methods were adopted in your school to secure regular attendance? (Ditto.)

6. Write a short letter on the advantages of punctuality. (Ditto.)

7. What are the chief qualifications necessary to make a good teacher? (Ditto.)

8. What methods have been adopted within your knowledge for correcting these faults in children: inattention,

untruthfulness, laziness, impertinence, sullenness, and with what effect? (Ditto.)

9. Explain the physical and moral advantages of drill for children. (Ditto.)

10. Describe the organization and teaching staff of the school in which you were apprenticed. What classes did you teach in the early part of your engagement, and when (if ever) did you begin to give collective or oral lessons? (Ditto.)

11. What means would you employ if you had a school of your own with a view to impress deeply upon your scholars the duty of being kind to each other and to dumb animals? (Ditto.)

12. What do you consider to be the uses of a playground? and how would you endeavour to make it subservient to the discipline of a school? To what extent (if any) would you take a personal part in the children's play? (Ditto.)

13. Mention any difficulties you may have met with in the effort to control the children you had to teach, and state how those difficulties were overcome. (Ditto.)

14. Illustrate from your practical experience in a day-school or elsewhere, the vital importance of securing good order in a school.

15. In what way did the Head Teacher of your school support the authority of the Pupil Teachers? Should pupil teachers be allowed to inflict corporal punishment?

16. What were the arrangements of your school, as to position of windows, stoves, desks, and galleries? Why have these points to be considered in planning a school? For what lessons is a gallery specially adapted? Describe the construction of a gallery suitable for infants.

17. Show the advantages of varying the classification of a school according to the subjects of instruction.

18. What rules were employed in your school to carry

out the regulations of the code, that "reasonable care should be taken to bring up children in habits (1) of good manners, (2) of cheerful obedience to duty, (3) of truthfulness ?

19. What movements of drill were required in your school for entering or leaving the room, and for changing class ? What are the objects of school drill ? Show that it has an influence upon the character of children, and their behaviour out of school.

20. Show that inattention in a class may proceed from the faults of the teacher or from causes other than faults in the children themselves.

21. Show that harshness and untruthfulness in a teacher influence the character and behaviour of children out of school.

22. What bad effects are produced by imperfect classification, both upon the more and less advanced members of a class ?

CHAPTER XII.

REGISTERS.

IN the following Appendix to the Instructions to H.M.'s Inspectors will be found the official notes, to the details of which the attention of managers and teachers will have their attention directed by the Inspector.

Every Pupil Teacher in her apprenticeship learns how to mark and make up the class Registers, but she should also make a copy of a specimen page of each of the following, and learn their uses and how to keep them, viz. Admission Register, Fees Book (if not part of the class Register), Summary, and Log Book.

REGISTRATION.

1. The Code requires that before any grant is made to a school the Education Department must be satisfied that suitable registers are provided, accurately kept, and periodically verified by the managers (Articles 8 and 96, c.), and again under Article 115 the grant may be reduced upon the Inspector's report for faults of registration.

2. In every school there should be (1) a register of admission, progress, and withdrawal; (2) registers of daily attendance for all scholars; (3) a book of summaries. These registers must (Article 8) be provided by the managers out of the funds of the school, so as to be the property of the school, and not in any sense of the teacher.

Admission Register.

3. *The Admission Register* should be kept exclusively by the Head Teacher, and made up at least once a week. Successive numbers should be allotted to the children on their admission so that each child may have its own number, which it should retain throughout its school career. A child who returns to school after an absence of any duration would resume its original admission number. The name need not be re-entered in the Admission Book if the child is re-admitted in the course of one school year.

4. No child's name should be removed from the register on account of absence for any period less than six weeks (except in case of death), unless the managers have ascertained, or the school attendance officer reports, that the child has left the school or neighbourhood.

5. This register should show distinctly for each child in the school (a) its number on the register; (b) the date of its admission or re-admission, day, month, and year; (c) name in *full*, Christian and surname; (d) the name and address of its parent or guardian; (e) whether exemption from religious instruction is claimed; *(f) the exact date of the child's birth, day, month, and year; *(g) the last school (if any) which it attended before entering this school; *(h) the highest standard in which it was there presented; (i) the successive standards in which presented in *this* school; (k) the date of leaving.

6. Where several children of the same name attend, they may be distinguished thus:—"John Jones (a)," "John Jones (b)," etc.

7. This register should have an alphabetical index.

* Special care must be taken to obtain exact information on these points from the parents, former teachers, and registrar of births, if necessary.

Attendance Register.

8. *The Attendance Registers must be marked every time that the school meets*, however small the number of children present, and all attendances so marked must be taken into account. They should show the daily and weekly attendance of every scholar, beginning with the first day of the school year (Article 22) and continuing to the end of the same.

9. Adequate time for marking these registers should be provided for in the time tables, from 5 to 10 minutes or more, according to the number of scholars.

10. In mixed schools the boys should be entered in the upper part of a page, the girls in the lower, leaving a space between them.

11. On the outside of a cover of each register should be legibly written the name of the school, and the year, also the department (boys, girls, mixed, or infant, as the case may be) and the class or classes to which it belongs. All registers should be paged.

12. There should be columns for each child's admission number, for its name in full, and its age last birthday, and columns for all the weeks in the year, which should always be dated at their head with the day and the month. One also for the morning attendances and another for the afternoon attendances of every day, with a place at their foot for adding them up. A column for school pence received in each week is not unfrequently added to the attendance columns, but as this is apt to cause confusion in the additions, both of the pence and the attendances, the pence columns had better be kept separate, unless entries be made in them in red ink. There should be a column for the entry at the close of each week of the total attendances made by each child during that week, and at the end of the register columns to sum up the total

attendances of each child during the year. The Code requires a separate register for half-timers. The register for each class may be marked by the Pupil Teacher (if he have completed his second year) having charge of the class, but the Head Teacher will be held responsible for its being regularly and properly kept.

13. In marking the attendance registers the following rules should be observed: (1) the registers must be marked and, excepting marks cancelled under 10 *infra*, be finally closed at least two hours before the termination of the time given to the secular instruction at each meeting of the school, and at the time specified on the approved time table; (2) after the registers are closed no child may be marked; (3) children must be marked at each meeting of the school, (4) in ink, never in pencil inked over afterwards; (5) presence must be marked with a long stroke, thus, /, or ; (6) absence must be marked with an "a" (7) there must be no dots; (8) no erasures, if any error has been made it must be corrected by a footnote; (9) no blanks; (10) if a child leaves before the two hours of secular instruction expire, its mark for presence should be cancelled by another stroke across it, thus x, and the total attendances for that meeting corrected by placing under them —1, —2, as the case may be; (11) registers must be original and not copied from slates, papers, etc., on pretence of keeping them clean, or any other plea; (12) the number of attendances made by the class should be entered at the foot of the column every morning and afternoon at the time for closing the registers; (13) the number of attendances made by each child during the week must be entered; (14) when a half or whole holiday occurs, or on the occasion of days set apart for special inspection, under section 76 of the Education Act (when the meetings and attendances are *not* to be registered for the purpose of annual grants), a line should be drawn down

the whole length of the column or columns; (15) for longer periods "holiday" should be written across the columns.

14. At the foot of the attendance columns for each week, or in some place specially provided for them in the registers, should be entered: (a) the number of times the school was open, morning and afternoon; (b) the total number of attendances made by all the children on this register during the week.

15. At the foot of each pence column the total amount of pence received during the week.

Summary.

16. The *Summary* should contain (1) the weekly entries of the attendance of each class transferred from the class registers every week into appropriate pages, and the average attendance for each week; (2) at the completion of the year the annual averages for the whole school should be struck and entered of boys and girls separately; (1) under 3, (2) between 3 and 7, (3) above 7, and (4) above 3, and the highest weekly average noted; (3) the summary should be clear, and should at once show the results asked for in the Managers' Return, Form IX.

17. In this book the duplicate examination schedules, and copies of the returns in Form IX., should be preserved, together with a list of scholars qualified to be presented, but not presented, with the reasons for their not being presented, and likewise of scholars presented a second time in the same standard, with the reasons for their being so presented.

General.

18. The managers' return (Form IX.) will contain a certificate that the registers have been checked at irregular

intervals, and at least once in every quarter by the managers. To check the registers the managers, or some one deputed by them, should visit the school without previous notice after the registers ought to be closed, and ascertain that the number of attendances marked tallies exactly with the number of children then present. An entry should also be made in the log book and in the registers at the time of checking them; they should also be signed at the same time by the teachers responsible for them.

19. *The managers' return should show by separate entries the number of admissions and re-admissions in the course of the first and second halves of the school year respectively.*

20. Attendance registers, when filled, should be put away and preserved for at least ten years. Admission registers and summaries should never be destroyed.

21. The above rules are intended for day schools, but should be applied as far as possible to evening schools.

22. My Lords do not at present insist upon uniform registers as a condition of annual grants, but they trust that by the co-operation of the managers of schools, such an extent of uniformity may be gradually introduced as to make the adoption hereafter of a uniform system of registers a matter of little difficulty.

38. The Code requires—

I. That all scholars whose names are on the registers of the school must be present at the inspection, unless there is a reasonable excuse for their absence.

II. That all such scholars whose names have at the end of the school year been on the register for the last 22 weeks during which the school has been open must be presented to the Inspector for examination.

39. As the grant is now based upon the average attendance of all the scholars, and will be adversely affected by the failure in examination of backward scholars, it will be

your duty to see that every child, who is liable to be presented for examination, is present, unless there is a reasonable excuse on the day of examination, and to record the absent scholars on the schedule as if they had been present and had failed. If the number of absentees be large, the absences should be a positive disqualification for the mark "good" or "excellent" in assessing the Merit Grant. Among reasonable excuses, probably the most general will be found to be infectious disease in the home, storms, unavoidable absence from home, a death in the family, or the scholar's having left the neighbourhood. Beyond these it is not probable that many reasonable excuses will be found, though cases of an exceptional character may arise, and can only be decided on the day of inspection.

40. The following excuses may, however, be reasonably accepted for withholding a scholar:—Delicate health or prolonged illness; obvious dulness or defective intellect; temporary deprivation, by accident or otherwise, of the use of eye or hand. But in order that all scholars whom it is proposed to withhold may not be neglected by a teacher, it will be your duty to look carefully through the list of such scholars, and to form a personal judgment as to the reasonableness of the excuses.

Questions on Registration.

1. Explain why erasures should never be permitted in any of the registers or other school documents. If a mistake were made in marking or casting up the registers, how should it be corrected? Explain the uses of an admission book.

2. Make out an imaginary attendance register for a class of twelve children attending somewhat irregularly, for a week in which there is one half-holiday; and calculate the daily average.

3. How would you find the average attendance at a school for any give time ?

Miscellaneous Questions.

The following questions given in the Examination for Queen's Scholarship, etc., cannot be grouped under special subjects :—

1. Describe the course through which you had to pass in preparing for your examination as Pupil Teacher in third year.

2. Write a letter assigning the reasons why you wish to be a teacher, and the advantage you hope to gain by entering a Training College.

3. Write an account of any school which you have seen in active operation.

4. Describe a week's work in a well-managed school.

5. Give an account of a week's work during some part of your fourth year.

6. Write a letter describing the last inspection and examination of your school.

7. Write an essay upon the duties and indispensable qualifications of an elementary teacher, the personal habits which ought to be cultivated, the faults which have to be guarded against, and the example that should be set.

8. Show that what is called stupidity in children may arise from faults on the part of the teacher. Name some of the faults.

9. Write an essay on one of the following requisites of a good lesson :—

(a) Adequate knowledge of the subject.

(b) Judgment in selecting from the subject matter.

(c) A good manner in dealing with the subject.

10. How was your schoolroom warmed and ventilated ?

Explain clearly the action by which the vitiated air was removed from the room. What are the chief difficulties attending ventilation in winter?

11. Describe the desk accommodation of your school. What space should be reserved for each child for writing, what for reading, in desks? Which lessons should be given out of desks? Give your reasons.

12. Give your opinion as to the value of rewards and punishments; and state the principle on which you think they ought to be administered.

13. By what special means would you try to promote (a) truthfulness and (b) punctuality among your scholars? State the motives which you would lay before the children as incentives to the constant observance of truth and punctuality.

14. Were any special means used to secure the co-operation of the parents of the children who attended your class; and if so, what was the result?

15. What were the chief hindrances in the way of the progress of the children you used to teach, and how did you attempt to remove them?

16. Mention any faults of character which a sewing lesson affords the opportunity of observing; and state how you would endeavour to correct them. Do you prefer a few long lessons in needlework each week, or a considerable number of short ones? Give reasons for your reply.

17. What illustrations would you prepare for a lesson on printing type, and for a first lesson on mountains?

18. What advantages accrue either to teachers or scholars from having a school well organized, well furnished, and supplied with all needful apparatus? How do these things tend to secure good order? and how does good order contribute to progress?

19. Write an essay on the teacher's influence in and out of school.

20. What books should be found in an efficient Public Elementary School for boys and girls (mixed), or for infants?

21. How were you accustomed to deal with dull, lazy, or obstinate children? and what special means did you adopt for securing the attention of the children in your division?

22. Draw up a Time Table for school of 250 infants; give a list of subjects to be taught in this school.

23. Is it a sufficient definition of good discipline to say that "It is the power exercised by the teacher over the children?" Give some distinguishing marks of good discipline.

24. If you come from an Infant School, state what a well-taught child of average ability might be fairly expected to do and to know when seven years of age.

25. Make a time-table of a week's work done in your school by the class or division which was last under your charge.

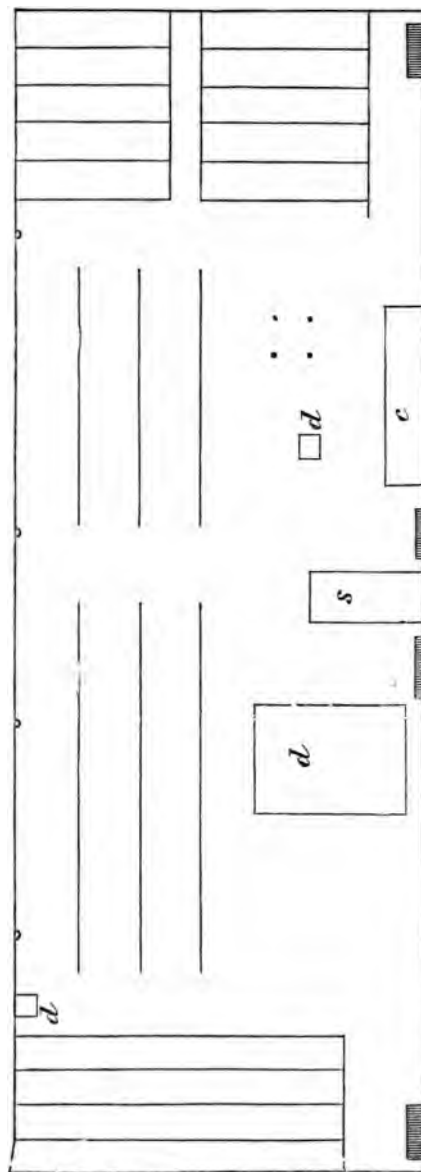
26. What are the principal faults of questioning that produce a habit of guessing in children? Show the bad effect of such a habit.

27. What is the advantage to young children of having lessons on such subjects as a spider, wool, sugar? Enumerate the qualities or peculiarities in each case to which you would specially direct their attention.

The accompanying plan has been actually drawn by the children in the first class of an Infants' School, and is given here to show what is practicable in this direction.

As types of good Infants' School Time Tables, making ample provision for subjects outside of the "3 R's," two are given here, used in two excellent schools, remarkable in the one case for Kinder-garten, in the other for Object Lesson, Teaching, but where, moreover, a Standard I. Reading-book is used in the upper classes in both cases.

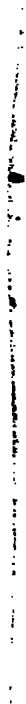
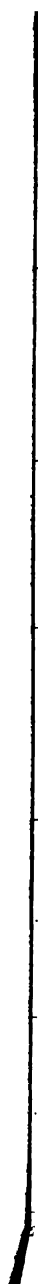
PLAN OF INFANTS' SCHOOLROOM, DRAWN BY CHILDREN.



c, Cupboard.

d, Desk.

s, Stove.



R

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CONCLUSION.

If there is any value at all to the Junior Teacher in the preceding pages, it will be mainly felt in the *Infant School* proper. *Infant Classes*, taught in conjunction with standard children, in smaller schools, are much more difficult to manage. But even in the latter case it is hoped that the *spirit* of the hints and suggestions here given will be found of use.

Elementary teaching is a profession that rather requires good common sense (tact) and good feeling than large scholarship; and the first and indispensable requisite is a love of children. This remark is specially applicable to Infant Teaching, where so many demands are made on "motherliness." Young teachers do not, of course, possess this *motherly* feeling, and often needlessly provoke conflicts; but they can be largely trained to it by wise words of counsel from the Head Mistress. It is earnestly hoped that the foregoing pages may strengthen the hands of the Head Teachers in this direction. Whatever may be thought of the wisdom or unwisdom of the origination of the Merit Clause, teachers have now loyally to attend to its requirements, and it is certainly not the conscientious teachers that will suffer from the new departure.

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